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JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

MARCH, 1954 VOLUME 136 NUMBER 6

AMERICA'S OLDEST MAGAZINE FOR EDUCATORS

PERHAPS a preview of some of the articles for our April issue would be of interest to our readers. They will include:

In *Children Sing Around the World,* Helen B. Kilduff points out the value and interest to elementary or secondary school children who are enrolled in the International Music Project sponsored by the American Junior Red Cross—greater international friendships and understanding are developed.

Democracy In Action by Madelaine M. Murphy discusses an experiment in good citizenship combining a study of rights, relationships and responsibilities with "readin," "ritin" and "rithmetic." Each classroom becomes a small laboratory in human relationships with great possibilities for illustrating democracy in action.

Educational Television—of real interest to so many of us—will be highlighted in an article by David E. Place, *Television—A Revolution In Education.* Mr. Place is Director of the Massachusetts Citizens Committee for Educational Television.

Other articles will cover Speaking in Context, Let's Visit The Museum, etc. We hope that in the coming months, more and more of our readers will want to submit articles for possible publication in the future. Our Editorial Board will welcome them—and do include pictures and other illustrative material if possible!

JOURNAL of EDUCATION

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The happy little boys, playing in their jungle gym at school, whom you see on the cover, are clinically blind. So too is the jolly little fellow in the pictures accompanying the article, "A Broader Concept of Normalcy." Further pictures of the activities of this attractive little person appear in a free brochure, "The Story of a School is the Story of Its Children," which may be secured by request to the Perkins Institution, Watertown 72, Mass., which supplied these pictures by Polumbaum.

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MATHEMATICS IMPORTANT TO NON-MATHEMATICS TEACHERS

David M. Cargill
Actuarial Assistant, R. P. Burroughs Co., Manchester, N. H.

For many years the mathematics curriculum in our public schools has been under close study for possible improvements. Most of the suggestions that have been made for revision of the curriculum have resulted from findings from within the mathematics field itself. Seldom, especially in recent years, have other subject fields within the school curriculum been made the object of actual research. However, the content of the mathematics course must be determined to some extent by the needs of other fields of study. With this view in mind, it was decided to question a group of teachers of subjects other than mathematics to determine what specific topics in mathematics they considered of special usefulness in their teaching.

A questionnaire containing eighty-five topics included in mathematics introduced primarily in grades seven through nine was developed and distributed to 1575 teachers of the social studies, sciences, commercial studies, and industrial arts throughout Massachusetts. The content of this questionnaire was based primarily on the grade placement chart designed by the Joint Commission of the Mathematical Association of America, Inc., and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.[1] Topics from the following areas of study were selected from the chart:

1. arithmetic
2. algebra
3. graphic representation
4. mathematical ways of thinking, habits, attitudes, appreciation
5. history of mathematics
6. correlated mathematical projects and activities.

The 1575 questionnaire recipients were selected from the 1951 Massachusetts State Department of Education Biennial High School Survey Report. These teachers, selected at random from this report, represented 146 secondary schools and are considered a representative group of the entire Massachusetts teaching force.

The questionnaire recipients indicated the usefulness of the eighty-five topics in their own teaching by checking them as "essential," of "some value," or of "no value." A specific check indicated the importance a teacher placed upon his pupils' mastery of the mathematical topic in question.

David M. Cargill, formerly a junior high school teacher in Fairhaven, (Mass.), is presently an actuarial assistant with an insurance company in New Hampshire. He lists as his hobbies, "enjoying life with my family, reading, and sports."

The following number of questionnaires, representing 40.4% of the total distributed, were returned and tabulated:

Subject Field	*Total Responses Tabulated*
Social Studies	136
Science	186
Commercial Studies	171
Industrial Arts	143
Total	636

This group was well representative of the initial group selected.

The questionnaires were tabulated and the topics ranked according to the combined number of "essential" and "some value" checks that they received. For example, a topic that was considered "essential" by 60% of all of the teachers whose questionnaires were tabulated and of "some value" by 20% of such teachers received a rank of 80%. In this manner the eighty-five topics were ranked according to their importance to non-mathematics teachers. For purposes of this study those topics receiving eighty per cent or more "essential" and of "some value" checks combined were selected arbitrarily as the topics needing special emphasis in the mathematics curriculum.

Results

A total of twenty-three topics in mathematics were found to need special emphasis, including eight in the category of Mathematical Ways of Thinking (100% of the total topics in that category on the questionnaire), ten in Arithmetic (62.5%), three in Graphic Representation (37.5%), two in Mathematical Projects and Activities (12.5%), and none in Algebra and The History of Mathematics. It is concluded that the categories of Mathematical Ways of Thinking and Arithmetic demand the most emphasis in the mathematics classroom in terms of their importance to non-mathematics teachers.

The twenty-three topics needing special emphasis in

[1] *The Place of Mathematics in Secondary Education*, The final Report of the Joint Commission of the Mathematical Association of America, Inc., and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Appendix V, pp. 246-51.

the mathematics curriculum according to the results of this study are ranked in their order of importance as follows:

1. Habits of correctness in computation, measurement, drawing, and making verbal statements. (T)
2. Habits of estimating and checking. (T)
3. Reasonable familiarity with the working vocabulary of arithmetic. (A)
4. Ability to interpret pictorial or graphic charts. (G)
5. Reasonable mastery of the four fundamental operations involving whole numbers. (A)
6. Ability to interpret and to analyze elementary problems, to collect and interpret data. (T)
7. Reasonable mastery of the four fundamental operations involving decimals. (A)
8. Appreciation for the service value of mathematics. (T)
9. Reasonable mastery of the four fundamental operations involving fractions. (A)
10. Reasonable mastery of the four fundamental operations involving per cents. (A)
11. Ability to use common tables of measure (e.g., interest tables, tables of roots and powers, income tax tables). (A)
12. Ability to make and interpret bar graphs. (G)
13. Understanding of the basic principles of arithmetic. (A)
14. Ability to prepare neatly and economically arranged written solutions of mathematical problems. (T)
15. Ability to solve problems involving approximate computation. (A)
16. Ability to make and interpret line graphs. (G)
17. Participation in projects and activities which include use of common graphic devices. (P)
18. Mastery of the skills and processes needed in dealing with numerical problems arising in the environment. (A)
19. Participation in projects and activities which include mathematics in home, school, and community. (P)
20. Appreciation for the cultural value of mathematics. (T)
21. Ability to apply relational thinking (the idea of dependence, of functional thinking) as a method of dealing with quantitative changes and relationships. (T)
22. Interest in the study of quantitative relationships with the aid of the table, graph, formula, and equation. (T)
23. Mastery of the skills and processes needed in dealing with everyday business problems. (A)

(Note: The letter in parentheses following each of the above topics is an abbreviation for the major category or area of study in which the particular topic is found. The categories and their abbreviations are as follows: (T) Mathematical Ways of Thinking, (A) Arithmetic, (G) Graphic Representation, and (P) Mathematical Projects and Activities.)

Conclusions and Recommendations

As was pointed out above, this study dealt with topics in mathematics formally introduced primarily in grades seven through nine. Therefore, the resultant conclusions and recommendations are directed in the first place to mathematics teachers in the junior high school. However, since the development of all of the twenty-three topics listed above should continue through the twelfth grade, these conclusions and recommendations are directed also to the senior high school mathematics teachers. It was beyond the scope of this study to determine which of the topics are introduced at an earlier stage in the school curriculum. There is no doubt but what many, if not all, of them are dealt with to a limited extent in the elementary school. Therefore, it is recommended that the elementary school teacher emphasize those topics that are introduced early and utilize the methods suggested below where appropriate.

Mathematical Ways of Thinking: Habits, Attitudes and Appreciation

The value of habits of correctness in computation, measurement, drawing, and in making verbal statements should be emphasized. The importance of accuracy can be stressed to the students by pointing out the innumerable instances in practically all occupations where inaccurate work would result in failure. A specific example of the need for accuracy in measurement is the case of the contractor in building a home. He must be able to read blueprints accurately in order to build the home successfully. The teacher might obtain a number of blue-prints to show the pupils how the contractor makes use of them to determine the necessary measurements.

In order to achieve accuracy, the pupils must be taught the importance of estimating and checking results. A simple but worthwhile suggestion is to train the pupils to become efficient in estimating the cost of several grocery store items at a glance. The teacher can point out how it will often prove profitable to the future home-maker to check figures in this manner.

Another topic in this category needing special attention is the one regarding the ability to interpret and analyze problems correctly, and to collect and interpret data. The pupil must be shown how to recognize a problem, define the problem, arrive at a tentative solution, check this solution, attempt others if thought necessary, and verify the solution believed correct by the use of data previously collected. He should be taught how to use the solution to solve present needs and to prepare for future problem situations. It is a difficult task to teach pupils to be conscious of the processes involved in the course of arriving at the solution to a problem. The task will be simplified if situations from everyday life are introduced. Budgeting the family income might be selected as a specific example of a problem situation. The teacher should guide the pupils carefully through each step of the problem from the first step of intelligently recognizing the problem to the final one of making use of the solution to solve present needs. Several typical cases might be studied in class to prepare the pupils to assist their parents at home on their own family budget.

In close connection with the need for emphasis on problem solving is the importance of teaching pupils how to prepare written solutions to problems in a neat and economical manner. One general means of approach is to use specific examples to illustrate the demands that employers place on neatness and economy of effort, space, and time.

An excellent method used to illustrate the service or utility value, as well as the cultural value of mathematics, is to set time aside to show the pupils the relationship of mathematics to other school subjects and its value to outstanding men in various occupations. A mathematics club, organized outside of school time, can serve an important function in this regard, although this topic by no means should be reserved for the mathematics club.

The ability to think in terms of relationships is considered very important by non-mathematics teachers. This

may be completely stated as the ability to apply relational thinking (the idea of dependence, of functional thinking) as a method of dealing with quantitative changes in relationships. One suggested method by which the mathematics teacher can emphasize the importance of relational thinking is by the use of the table, graph, formula, or equation. It was the judgment of the teachers questioned in this study that mathematics teachers should make special use of these instruments in order to stimulate further interest in the study of quantitative relationships on the part of the pupils. For example, the teacher might use the graph to illustrate the meaning of dependence in the following manner. The pupils might be directed to draw graphs of the following cases of a quantity whose size depends on the size of another quantity: (1) The amount of gasoline a motorist buys depends on the amount of money he is able to spend on it; (2) the number of miles the motorist can drive his car depends on the number of gallons of gasoline he uses; (3) The amount of money allowed as a discount at a given percentage depends on the list price of the article.

Arithmetic

The working vocabulary of arithmetic should be given special emphasis. This can best be accomplished by usage by the teacher of such essential terms as sum, interest, foot, degree, and many others in repeated drill work.

Special attention should be given to the four fundamental operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division involving whole numbers, decimals, fractions, and per cents. Reasonable mastery of these operations is so essential to any work in mathematics that much drill and review is necessary. Much of this can be undertaken in such a manner as to relate the work to material of interest in mathematics and other subjects. The calculation of baseball batting averages is an interesting application of the division of whole numbers. Many boys will maintain a keen interest in this figuring which can carry over into other drills.

Pupils should also receive special training in the use of common tables of measure. Interest tables, tables of roots and powers, and income tax tables are examples of tables with which the pupils ought to become familiar.

Special emphasis should also be given the basic principles of arithmetic. Examples of such principles are the following: (1) dividend equals the product of the divisor and the quotient, plus the remainder, and (2) the value of an exact decimal is not changed by annexing zeros at the right of the decimal. In the course of the mechanical drill involved in problems of arithmetic, it is essential for achievement in other subjects as well as in mathematics that the pupil understand such basic principles as these.

A general requirement listed by the non-mathematics teachers is the mastery of the skills and processes needed in dealing with numerical problems in the environment of everyday business problems. A study of the principle of installment buying would be appropriate to emphasize this topic. It is suggested that the rate of interest formula ($i = prt$) be studied extensively, for the ability to use this formula is essential to a thorough understanding of the principle of installment buying.

Graphic Representation

Mathematics students should be given special training in interpreting pictorial or graphic charts and in making and interpreting bar and line graphs. A suggested activity would be to make and interpret a bar graph showing the relative number of each nationality group in the local town at the present time. A line graph might also be made comparing the number of a specific group residing in the town at different yearly intervals. This study would be a worthwhile sociological project as well as essential training in graphic representation.

Mathematical Projects and Activities

Under this category it is suggested that pupils participate in home, school, and community projects that involve mathematics and also in projects that make use of common graphic devices. As an illustration of a school activity involving mathematics the teacher might organize a public opinion poll. The pupils would compose a set of questions of general interest to be asked in their grade. The questions could be of the following type: (1) What should be the weekly allowance of seventh graders? (2) How many hours' sleep a night should a seventh grader get? After determining how to treat the resulting data, the pupils would tabulate it accordingly. Some questions might require percentage computations, while others would best be handled by frequency tables. A discussion of the results would follow. Such an activity should stimulate critical thinking, as well as provide valuable arithmetic insights.

The specific examples listed above are intended to be merely brief suggestions of how to carry out the emphasis of the topics in question. Of course, there are countless additional illustrations that might serve equally as well. It is hoped, however, that the examples included will serve to suggest means of emphasizing the topics that are considered of special importance to non-mathematics teachers as a result of this study.

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TELEVISION GOES TO ELEMENTARY ART CLASSES!

John R. Sawyer

Suppose you are serving on a committee which is faced with the problem of presenting an educational television program about a contemporary program of elementary art education? The program will be directed primarily to parents to help them gain a clear understanding of the contemporary method of teaching art in the elementary schools. The usual procedure is to take a dozen children to a television studio and there, using many small groups, demonstrate the use of art materials. The children would be well rehearsed as to what was to take place; the timing would be perfected; blue paint would have to be used; and the jungle of cameras, lights, electric wiring, monitor sets, and peculiar looking booms around which Mars-like looking men scoot to their various duties would engulf the curiosity of the children. Could such a situation be made to stimulate a typical elementary classroom situation? How could children create and work naturally under such outside pressure? By now the answer is obvious – it would be impossible.

Recognizing these conditions, a committee of general and art educators from the Public Schools of Needham, Massachusetts, The State Department of Education of Massachusetts, The Massachusetts School of Art, and a producer with Station WBZ-TV, Boston, served together to resolve a solution. The collective decision was made to take colored motion pictures of the children working, unrehearsed, at regular art activities as they occur in the classroom. Through the courtesy of the local Public School Association, the film was financed with the intention that it would serve to orient new teachers who come new to the system each year and to help the parents through the local P. T. A. groups to understand what their schools are accomplishing in elementary art education. The possibility of continued editing from year to year with little cost introduced a valuable educational visual aid to the creative art program of the town.

With this plan in mind, the success of the television program depended directly upon each classroom teacher's cooperation with the elementary art teacher in creating art activities through the interests and within the understanding of the children.

Presently Supervisor of Art Education in the Needham (Mass.) Public Schools, John R. Sawyer has a varied background in art work including teaching art education courses and commercial illustrations and photography. Oil and water color painting is his hobby. His family share his art interest and together their project is remodeling their home, landscaping and gardening.

The purpose of this article is to take the reader behind the scene of one contemporary program of creative art education in a public school system. The intention is not to prescribe a recipe for creative art education for other school systems or even to elaborate upon the basic concepts involved. Many recent fine volumes explain the basic concepts of creative art education which advocate neither stereotyped programs or plans. The variety of ways of developing an art education program with creative aims is as great as the number of creative art programs.

The classroom situations used for this television program were selected only because the art activities in progress at the time the television program was being organized illustrated work with a particular material or in a

stage of development. With a limit of showing time, it was necessary to be selective; otherwise, any elementary classroom among eighty-four could have been filmed.

Related to each sequence of art activities used in the picture was an elementary classroom teacher's understanding of children's art. This understanding was developed over a period of years in various ways with the assistance and guidance of trained art personnel. No way is peculiar to any one art program. One is not better or worse, nor is there a single correct procedure. Success in helping teacher's gain this understanding of child art has been through the combination of a variety of approaches which provide an opportunity for the teacher to select and participate in the approach in which she is interested and of which she has understanding. Teachers who have been aided in gaining an understanding of child art have

been through periods of active participation with art materials as the children use them, orientation programs for teachers new to the school system, cooperating teacher committees, sequences of study workshops, curriculum guide material peculiar to the particular art education situation, monthly art letters, cooperating classroom teacher – art supervisor planning and teaching, bibliographies of art literature, published lists of art materials, art libraries in teacher's rooms. The supervisor of art was available for consultation whenever needed.

These elementary classroom teachers with some understanding of the natural creative development of children's art were better able to evaluate their children's art and to be sympathetic toward their level of ability. They knew something about the normal sequence of children's creative development. They also knew that children in the same class may be at various stages of development.

Briefly, the normal child begins his creations with scribbles at an early age and then progresses from disorderly scribbling through longitudinal, circular scribblings, and then begins to name his scribbles. The child draws symbolically sometime between the ages of four and seven years. He draws as he thinks, and his symbols change often. In time, he slowly develops a definite system. He exaggerates important things, attaches his work to base lines and the edge of his paper. This happens sometime between the age of seven and nine. As he approaches the "gang" age, he becomes aware of realistic details. His schematic drawings become increasingly realistic, and finally his system of drawing disappears. He begins to overlap things in his work, and discovers design and decoration. From eleven to about thirteen years, he draws realistically and is keenly aware of his environment and its appearance. Some boys and girls depict things as they actually look; others paint and draw their feelings about their environment.

Many of the teachers of the classrooms pictured on television participated from time to time in regular visual creative activities by attending in-service art workshops. These experiences helped them to understand that there is not one right way or any single correct procedure for working with a material as there is a right and wrong answer in arithmetic or a correct date in history. They sensed, rather, that one material may lend itself to some activities better than to others and that there are many ways of working with one material. They learned that each child, in evaluating his own efforts through stimulating questions asked by the teacher, would develop his own techniques through continued practice in following grades. Her own creative experiences served to help her to understand the creative expressions of children and to be sympathetic to them.

Three-Dimensional Art

To open the television program, a local parent holding a picture painted by her own first grade child introduced the motion picture in this way, "Because I wondered why the things my child drew in the first grade didn't look like anything, I decided to find out about art in the elementary schools of my town. The Public School Association in Needham had recently studied the activities in all departments of the school system and my curiosity about the subject was satisfied by the publication of its study. The following moving picture will show some of the things which I learned."

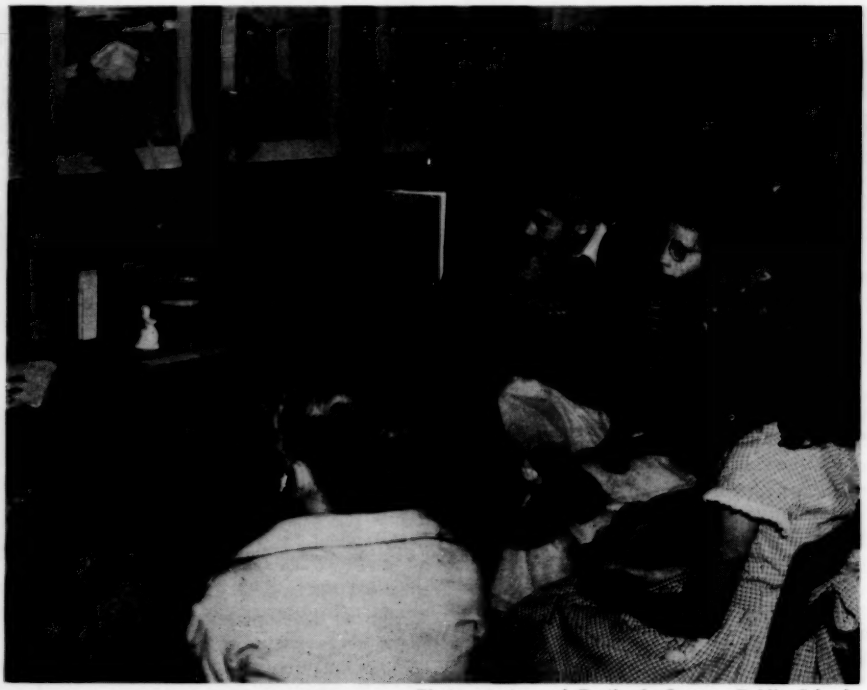

Photo courtesy of Portland, Oregon, Public Schools

As the picture began, a group of children in a second grade were working with a firm piece of paper which was easy to cut and tear. Already they had had many simple experiences with paper in the first grade, and now they were trying to change a flat surface into an interesting form which would fill space and be pleasing from all sides.

As they worked, the classroom teacher quietly asked leading questions which helped to provoke the children's realization that the forms could be developed with paper. They found that by curling, folding, cutting, adhering, fringing, crumbling, and tearing the paper in different ways that they could create many and varied shapes. This exploratory experience helped acquaint the child with new ways of working with the material in his own way. This was the beginning of his developing a sensitivity to creating form in space. This experience will help the child in his progress to understand and carry through construction projects in similar sturdier materials in later grades, and in later life, buildings and industrial designs. Three dimensional art may be used in table models, bulletin boards, ornaments, sculpture friezes, and stage designs, to mention a few.

Painting and Illustrating

As the movie progressed, an easel corner in a first grade room was shown. Such an arrangement provides a means of painting in small crowded rooms. Two children were painting, one on each side of the easel. They were using large paper and brushes and primary colors which were opaque. As they mixed, new colors appeared; and with their curiosity aroused they asked the teacher about them. In this experience, they learned to share with their classroom friends and to consider others. Their exciting symbols represented many experiences of their young lives.

Next appeared first grade children who were working out a colored cut paper mural of their own farm. They had studied farms. After a visit to a farm nearby and previous exploratory experiences with paper, they were eager to picture their own farm; other children in the same class chose to do table models and cardboard box dioramas.

Another first grade became interested in stores. They had studied stores. Their art activities were shown and included number work illustrations of their own creation, picture story books of their own design, papier-mache food, lettered price tags, and labels. A store needed to be designed and built. This heavy task was cooperatively sub-contracted by a neighboring fifth grade class.

Then followed a picture sequence of a third grade class. Having portable furniture, they pushed it aside and covered the floor with newspapers. Behold a painting class began! Beautiful and varied shapes arranged so that significant colors and shapes became magic flowers, animals, and interesting people of the children's imagination. My, they were having fun and at the same time were endeavoring intensely to get their paintings to show up across the room.

Plays and Puppets

The program continued with another third grade class filmed during the presentation of the play, "The Cobbler And The Elves." Here, the children had designed their own scenery, costumes, and advertising posters. They wrote invitations to their parents. The entire class took part in the correlation of writing, spelling, arithmetic, music and art.

The scene shifted to still another third grade working on a unit dealing with cloth. While studying this unit, the class became interested in weaving. They were shown weaving with scraps of cloth and yarn on simple cardboard looms of their own construction. The children selected colors that were pleasing together, noted contrasts in light and dark, and arranged bright and dull colors. They developed patterns by repeating varieties of pleasing colors and textures.

Continuing, a frieze cut from black paper and attached to a white background was shown in a fourth grade classroom. The scenes created by the children were cut freehand directly from the paper. Experience has shown that younger children lose interest in their work when repeating their own art work; therefore, the initial experience should be the only one.

Appearing next on the television screen, a sixth grade class was in various stages of creating the properties for a puppet show. The class had studied a science and literature unit involving constellations in relation to mythology. The theme of the show was the story of Perseus, Andromeda, and the Gorgon's head. The children were shown modeling puppets' heads which embodied their impression of the characters. They modeled clay over a light bulb as a base which extended their clay supply. Then, as they finished, they applied enough layers of newspaper and paste, which would form a firm casing when dry, by impressing it over the model. When this was dry, the hard casing formed was cut in half, the base removed and rejoined with strips of paper and glue. Hollow heads resulted; and after the children designed, sewed, and attached costumes, a fine hand puppet came to life.

After these activities were pictured, other committees were shown busy about the business of building the stage from cardboard cartons and designing and painting the sets for the show. Previously, other committees had been writing the script. After a few rehearsals, the show was on!

A group of children in a fourth grade who were interested in sports, dramatized the action of different sports and noticed how arms, legs, and bodies looked as they carried out these motions. Then, with large crayons, they made their figures fill their papers and really move.

Pottery, Displays and Posters

Birds were studied in science and lent themselves to clay in another fourth grade. Having learned the basic characteristics of birds, they designed original birds. The pottery clay was later baked for permanency so that the children could take it home and have something to show mother and dad.

The display on a bulletin board was designed by the children of a fifth grade, using materials that they had

made or collected. With many different committees responsible for similar arrangements concerning subjects studied during the year, each child had an opportunity to participate. The children developed sensitivity to good arrangement, through balance and proportion as well as emphasis through contrast and unity through repetition. Experiences in arranging their school room led to future satisfactions in arranging their homes in future life.

In a fifth grade, children cut letters from a strip of paper. The width of the paper strip was being cut in proportion to the desired letter. Cutting letters in this way, the children were able to "eye-space" letters to form words and words to form slogans for posters that they were making. In this way, they experienced the spacing of letters and were not discouraged when changes were necessary – as the cut out letters moved easily. They learned that legibility is essential in good lettering and is gained through size and contrast.

While studying South America, a sixth grade class made colorful over-sized posters and used them for the background of their play that was based on that country.

At the same time in another school, a class of sixth graders centered their attention on the study of agriculture. Over a period of a few weeks, they created a mural which filled the back of their room. Here, they used their recently developed knowledge of the subject to help produce a convincing design.

Through similar group work throughout the year, the children gained confidence in their relationship with others. Each child came to realize that he had an important role in developing the whole art product. He recognized that a group can accomplish what no person can do singly and learned to select, to compromise or to discard for the democratic good of all.

The Television Program

This is an example of what the children did in creative art activities in the elementary classroom of the Town of Needham, Massachusetts, as presented on film on the recent educational television program. The program concluded with a panel of commentaries by the art supervisor of the Needham Public Schools, the elementary grade supervisor, a representative from the Department of Education of the Massachusetts School of Art, and finally, by the State Supervisor of Elementary Education in Massachusetts. She reflected that what the Town of Needham was doing in their creative art education program throughout all grade levels of the school system was typical of good contemporary programs of art education carried on by many towns and cities throughout Massachusetts.

Because a committee of state and local general and art educators and television producers cooperatively agreed that the optimal way to televise creative art education in a normal elementary classroom situation was to take the cameras to the classroom, children and their teachers contributed to the success of this educational television program dealing with contemporary art education in Massachusetts. A great part of this success was directly related to the sincerity and willingness of the elementary classroom teachers who endeavored to be understanding of the contemporary aims of art education, to be sympathetic to the art work of the children in their classroom communities, and to be willing to try creating themselves in the everyday practice of teaching with materials and with art activities related to their own room.

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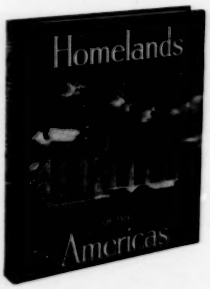

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AN EVALUATION CHART FOR TALKS OR ORAL REPORTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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Successful teaching in any field demands that the teacher have practical methods of testing pupil achievement. Testing has two principal purposes: (1) the diagnosis and analysis of needs and abilities; (2) the evaluation of achievement or performance as a result of instruction. Both these functions are important in testing speech and should be employed intelligently by the teacher of speech as well as all teachers.[1]

In the field of oral communication there is a definite need for a valid rating instrument.

> "We might safely add that there is no field of educational training that stands in greater need of improving its examinations than does the field of speech. . . . . We owe our administrators some measurable proof of our contribution to education. . . . We also need a trustworthy method of examining speech abilities in order to stimulate students."[2]

This article describes the development and use of a *Listener's Evaluation Chart for Talks* in the secondary schools. The purpose of this study was to develop and validate a rating chart for oral reports. The original chart was prepared by Dr. Wilbert Pronovost of Boston University and revised by a committee of graduate students in speech education at Boston University. The *Listener's Evaluation Chart for Talks* indicates abilities while speaking in an oral report situation. Twenty-nine items, indicating general and specific speaking abilities, are measured with this easily evaluated, simple, yet comprehensive chart. General abilities measured are: (1) choice of a subject, (2) statement of a main point and the organization of material, (3) the maintenance of interest during the talk, (4) the display of poise and a neat appearance, (5) the use of voice and articulation. The detailed items of the chart are given in the accompanying table of results.

Method of Rating and Scoring

For each item of the chart, ratings of (2), (1), or (0) are given. The rating of (2) is given to denote an "above average," a "very good," a strength in the performance of the ability being rated, when a definite "yes" can be used to answer a question. The rating (1) is given to denote an "average" or "satisfactory" performance, when a "some of the time" answer could be used in a reply to a question. The rating of (0) is given to denote a "below average," "poor" performance, a weakness in the ability being rated, when a question might be answered by the word "no."

An indication of the level of speaking ability can be obtained by totalling the score for all the items. The total scores of students in a class can be compared to determine each student's relative speaking effectiveness.

A three-minute talk, or oral report, is long enough to be able to rate all items on the chart. Items 4, 5, 10, and 17 may be rated soon after the talk is started. The other items may be rated as the talk progresses and the various abilities become sufficiently evident to evaluate. The summary items at the end of the chart can be checked in thirty seconds after the talk is completed.

Validation of the Evaluation Chart

The chart was used with two groups of high school students enrolled in speech classes for the purposes of validating the items. In one high school, 64 students were rated; in the other, 58 students were rated. Three persons trained in speech rated each student. The score assigned for statistical analysis was the average score of the three ratings on each item. The teachers of these students were asked to select the upper and lower quartiles of his respective group, based on each teacher's estimate of speaking effectiveness. The students selected by each teacher were compared with those whose scores fell in the upper and lower quartiles of the evaluation chart scores. For one teacher, the percentage of agreement was 81 per cent for the upper quartile and 75 per cent for the lower quartile. For the other teacher, the percentage of agreement was 67 per cent for the upper quartile and 13 per cent for the lower quartile. The latter teacher reported difficulty in selecting the poorest quartile. The students reported as "poor" by this teacher received lower than average scores on the evaluation chart even though they did not all fall within the lowest quartile on the chart. These results indicate that the chart does indicate the general level of speaking effectiveness.

Validity of a measuring instrument can also be determined by statistical analysis. An item analysis of the performance of the upper and lower quartiles on each item was undertaken. The item analysis indicated that all items, except Number 17, are valid in discriminating between "good" and "poor" speaking effectiveness.

Speaking Abilities of Eighth and Eleventh Graders

The chart was used to rate the oral reports of one hundred eighth grade students and one hundred eleventh grade students. Three raters, using the chart, evaluated the speaker's performance. One rater was the classroom

1 Karl F. Robinson, *Teaching Speech in Secondary Schools*. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1951, p. 144.

2 Donald Hayworth, *Tests and Measurements in Public Speaking* "The Quarterly Journal of Speech" (November, 1935). 21:572-575.

teacher and the other two were graduate speech education students from Boston University. Oral reports presented in English, Social Studies, Science, and Home Economics classes in seven junior and senior high schools in Eastern Massachusetts were evaluated by means of the chart. The average scores for each item of the chart are shown in the accompanying table. These average scores show the strengths and weakness in speaking effectiveness at each grade level, and make possible a comparison of speaking effectiveness at the two grade levels studied.

The findings of this study indicate that eleventh grade students are slightly better over-all speakers than eighth grade students. The eleventh graders were the better speakers in all specific abilities except five In speaking abilities at this grade level, the girls are slightly better speakers than the boys. The eighth graders were more effective in their ability to be heard more easily by the audience and their subjects were more interesting to the audience. Both grade levels were equally at ease during the oral reports, were equally distinct as they spoke, and their voices were equally as pleasing to hear.

The findings of the one hundred students at the eighth grade level indicate that girls are slightly better speakers

than boys. The strongest speaking abilities at the eighth grade level were: speaking so that the audience could hear easily, the selection of a good subject, interest in the subject, the accurate pronouncing of words, and the speaker's knowledge of his subject. The weakest speaking abilities at the eighth grade level were: the failure to use pictures, objects, or blackboard diagrams well, when necessary; the failure to use appropriate gestures and actions; the failure to have a clear summary of the main point at the end of the talk; and the failure to use an interesting conclusion at the end of the talk. The general impressions of the talks at the eighth grade level were rather poor.

The strongest speaking abilities at the eleventh grade level were: selection of a good subject, interest in the subject, clear statement of the main point and the explanation of it so that the audience could understand it, selection of a main point that he could explain in his time limit, and the speaker's knowledge of his subject.

Average Scores on each item of Listener's Evaluation Chart for Talks. Highest score possible—2.00.

Item	8th Grade	11th Grade
I. SUBJECT		
1. Was the speaker interested in his subject?	1.41	1.56
2. Did the subject interest the audience?	1.13	1.11
3. Did the speaker know his subject well?	1.34	1.47
II. MAIN POINT AND ORGANIZATION		
4. Did the speaker state his main point clearly?	1.33	1.45
5. Did the speaker select a main point that he could explain in his time limit?	1.29	1.48
6. Did the speaker use examples, or reasons, or facts to make his point clear?	1.05	1.37
7. Did the speaker develop his main point in a clear order?	.99	1.45
8. Did the speaker summarize his main point clearly at the end of his talk?	.75	.99
9. Did the speaker select words which expressed his ideas clearly?	1.22	1.44
III. INTEREST		
10. Did the speaker arouse the interest of the audience at the beginning of the talk?	1.15	1.19
11. Did the speaker keep the attention of the audience during the talk?	1.09	1.13
12. Did the speaker have an interesting conclusion?	.78	.88
13. Did he use pictures, objects, or blackboard diagrams well, when necessary?	.43	.60
IV. POISE AND APPEARANCE		
14. Was he at ease?	1.20	1.20
15. Did he use appropriate gestures and actions?	.57	.61
16. Did the speaker talk to his audience?	1.05	1.15
17. Did the speaker have a neat appearance?	1.63	1.70
V. VOICE AND ARTICULATION		
18. Could the audience hear the speaker easily?	1.41	1.16
19. Did he speak distinctly?	1.32	1.32
20. Did he pronounce his words accurately?	1.41	1.44
21. Was his voice pleasing to hear?	1.23	1.23
22. Did his voice express the meaning of his words?	1.10	1.23
23. Did he speak at a suitable rate?	1.23	1.37
SUMMARY ITEMS		
I. Did the speaker select a good subject?	1.43	1.74
II. Did you understand the speaker's main point and his explanation of it?	1.23	1.51
III. Did the speaker make his talk interesting?	1.00	1.07
IV. Did the speaker present a poised and neat appearance?	1.31	1.39
V. Did the speaker use his voice so that the audience could hear and understand him easily?	1.20	1.24
VI. What was your general impression of the talk?	.93	1.20

The weakest speaking abilities at the eleventh grade level were: little use of pictures, objects, or blackboard diagrams; when necessary, use of appropriate gestures and

action, lack of an interesting conclusion, no summary of the main point at the end of the talk; an uninteresting talk, failure to talk to the audience.

Using the Chart in the Classroom

The evaluation chart may be used in a variety of ways in the classroom. Speech and English teachers and teachers in the upper grades can use the chart in its entirety at the beginning of a year to evaluate the level of ability of the students, and to determine the areas of strength and weakness in the class, as a whole as well as in individual students. Such an analysis can be used as a guide in selecting areas of teaching which need greatest emphasis. Progress can be measured by using the chart at intervals throughout a period of time, and at the end of a definite period of instruction. When specific assignments are made pertaining to a special section of the chart, only that section of the chart need be used. For example, assignments devoted to organization of material in a talk need be evaluated with only section II of the chart.

The entire chart need not be used unless a detailed description of speaking abilities is desired. The summary items at the end of the chart will give an adequate indication of the level of speaking ability. Teachers may wish to use only the six summary items in the actual evaluation, but use the other questions to guide them in making an evaluation for each summary item. In this manner, any teacher who uses oral reports in teaching subject matter or speaking skills has a means of evaluating the effectiveness of the oral presentation.

A TEACHER-ADMINISTERED RATING CHART FOR TALKS IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

Elizabeth Chase Read
Kindergarten Teacher, Concord, Mass., Public Schools

In the primary school one of the most important areas is growth in oral language. Studies have shown that an individual manner of thinking and speaking becomes organized at a very early age and that schools now allow the same habits to continue into adulthood. Dawson[1] says that teachers will get more reliable results in their observations of the speech of children if they have the points in mind to be considered. That is, she stated, observation should be of a directed type in which the teacher makes or uses a checklist of items. One such checklist has been composed and validated[2] for use in the primary grades.

With this checklist, a classroom teacher may determine the strengths and weaknesses of the children in her class as a group and as individuals. This rating chart can be used by the teacher in setting up a language program to meet the needs of her class. The rating chart can also be used to measure the progress of an individual child in giving talks over a period of time.

The chart developed by Crawford[3] was revised by this author and a group of in-service elementary school teachers. It was then used to evaluate the talks of 1,344 children in fifty-one primary grades in West Hartford, Conn. There were 471 children in Grade I, 440 in Grade II, and 433 in Grade III participating in this study.

Each teacher was asked to rate each child in her room once in a talking situation, preferably an informal sharing time. The teacher rated each child as he talked to the group; it was necessary to fill in only the Summary questions at the time of the talk. The detailed questions at the top could be filled in, as time permitted, at the time of the talk or immediately afterward. The rating scale used was "2", meaning above average, superior; "1" meaning average; and "0" meaning poor, needs improvement. There was a total possible score of 42 (21 items times a rating of "2"). Each teacher was also asked to rate each child on amount of participation based on the general performance of the child over the year.

Item analysis was a means of determining the validity of the rating chart. A comparison was made between the number of right responses of children who gave good talks and the number of right responses of children who gave poor talks. The item analysis showed that every

1. Mildred A. Dawson, *Teaching Language in the Grades*, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1951, p. 40.
2. Elizabeth Chase Read, "A Teacher-Administered Rating Chart for Talks at the Primary Level," unpublished Master's thesis, Boston University, 1953.
3. Crawford, J. W., "The Validity of a Teacher Administered Rating Chart for Talks at the Secondary Level," unpublished Master's thesis, Boston University, 1951.

item on the chart discriminated successfully between good and poor performance in giving a talk to a group.

Speaking Abilities

As this chart was used it was found that on most items the third grade children receive more "0" ratings on each item than either of the other two grade levels. Grade III was a little more heavily weighted than the other two grades in its percentage of people refusing to participate, reluctant to participate even when called upon, and participated only when called upon.

From the material gathered when this chart was used with a large group of primary grade children, several facts have become apparent. There was a wide range of ability at the primary level. The amount of participation in oral activities in a primary class ranges from children who are reluctant or refuse to give talks to those who volunteer all the time. The children who show ability at giving talks were more willing to participate. Grade II rated somewhat higher on the scale than Grades I and III. About half of the children volunteered adequately, one quarter always volunteered and the remaining quarter were reluctant to participate, participated only when called upon, or refused.

The scores that accompany the checklist are the average scores obtained for each item on each grade level. These are given as a guide rather than as any kind of norm. With two as a possible top score and zero as the bottom, these scores are higher than the average of one. This might be accounted for by the fact that the checklist was used with a selected group rather than a random sampling.

Suggestions for Classroom Use

This checklist can be used valuably in any of several different ways. The checklist gives the teacher something concrete by which she can judge the level of each of the children in her class in the area of oral participation.

The checklist can be used with all the children in the class—either by evaluating the summary items only or by using the whole chart. If the teacher rates all her children on the summary items, it is sufficient to make clear to her the strengths and weaknesses of her particular class. She may then plan her speech program accordingly. When using the chart with the entire class it is a good idea to paste a copy of the chart on the left hand side of a manila folder. Then prepare a lined paper to go on the right with a box opposite each item. Rule the paper vertically and put each child's name at the top of a column. Then each child will have a box for each item where the teacher may quickly place a mark of "2", "1", or "0" during the talk.

Individual children may seem to need help in improving in their oral participation. Sometimes it is difficult to pin down the area where help is needed. By using the chart to analyze a child's talk, the teacher can obtain a good understanding of where to begin training.

The checklist can be used at the beginning of the year with the entire class. When the teacher has evaluated the results—noting where most of the "2's" are falling and where most of the "0's" are falling—she can set up an improvement program for her children. After several months she can again evaluate the children's talks—thus enabling her to see in what areas there has been improvement and in what areas more work needs to be done.

TEACHER'S EVALUATION CHART FOR TALKS IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

		Average Scores Obtained by 1344 Primary Grade Children rated "2," "1," "0."		
		Grade I	Grade II	Grade III
I	Topic:			
	1. Was the child interested in his topic?	1.41	1.48	1.33
	2. Was the group interested in his topic?	1.17	1.29	1.14
	3. Did the child know his topic well?	1.29	1.34	1.24
II	Organization and Content:			
	1. Did the child express a complete thought?	1.29	1.34	1.20
	2. Did each statement contribute to the central thought?	1.18	1.28	1.08
	3. Was the child telling the items in the order in which they belong?	1.17	1.34	1.12
	4. Did the child use words which expressed his ideas clearly?	1.24	1.31	1.10
	5. Did the child use acceptable grammar?	1.23	1.32	1.09
III	Appearance:			
	1. Was the child at ease (free from distracting mannerisms?	1.12	1.18	1.00
	2. Did the child look at his audience as he talked?	1.16	1.32	1.19
IV	Voice:			
	1. Could the group hear the child easily?	1.15	1.30	1.17
	2. Was the child's voice pleasing to hear?	1.15	1.21	1.19
	3. Was he speaking at a suitable rate?	1.14	1.26	1.03
	4. Did the child's voice express the meaning of his words?	1.18	1.24	1.07
	5. Was the child speaking clearly?	1.13	1.20	1.01
	6. Did the child pronounce his words accurately?	1.17	1.25	1.07
	SUMMARY			
I	Was the group interested in the topic about which the child was speaking?	1.21	1.30	1.18
II	Was the talk organized so the group could understand it easily?	1.18	1.24	1.13
III	Did the child present a poised appearance to the group?	1.09	1.22	1.05
IV	Did the child speak with an interesting voice which the group could hear and understand?	1.14	1.17	1.08
V	What was your general impression of the talk?	1.14	1.21	1.05

* * * * *

Check one:	N = 468 Number of children in each category	N = 430	N = 421
Volunteers adequately	230	226	206
Always volunteers	119	113	101
Participates only when called upon	92	78	94
Reluctant to participate even when called upon	30	23	32

THE SCHOOL AND MORAL EDUCATION

Robert F. Topp and Lacey A. Eastburn

We in education cannot avoid some of the blame for what appears to be widespread moral and ethical deterioration among adults in governmental and business positions. Evident in such newsworthy professions at the present time, there is more than a suspicion that adults, in general, are undergoing a lowering of standards related to moral behavior.

In our earnest efforts to prepare young people to live in the most socially-intricate world of all time we have failed to instill that which is most essential to sound human relations—ethically appropriate behavior. We have busied ourselves with English and mathematics, tests and marks, I.Q.'s and football. At times it seems as though we have worried about everything except the moral* development of the child. And it has been like leaving the motor out of the automobile as far as wholesome living with people is concerned.

The home must have been worrying about something else, too, for its efforts toward character development appear to have fallen short of what is most desirable. The influence of family living during the child's first five years of life, and, to a lesser extent, during the next ten or fifteen years, should be the greatest of all influences in the life of a boy or a girl.

Likewise, we cannot overlook the contribution toward character development that can be made by church and synagogue, or by the community and organizations within the community. These, too, have much to do with the setting up of values in the lives of people.

The School's Responsibility

But we are thinking about teachers and schools now. Too often we have failed to put our utmost effort into a task such as this because we thought others were doing it, or ought to be doing it. In this case the job is too big for any one group or institution to manage by itself. School, home, community and other social agencies must unite to provide experiences that will create a morally-educated person. None can do it without the help of the others.

Neglect by the schools cannot be said to have been intentional. On the contrary, hardly any group of individuals has established itself more securely as sound in character than have teachers. By their example they have indirectly taught many ethical concepts to children. It takes more than good example, however, especially when examples of the opposite sort are everywhere apparent.

Instead of neglect of responsibility, the lack of attention to moral and ethical development of children must be attributed to unintentional oversight—the natural result of excessive concentration on what we thought were more pressing teaching obligations. Administrators and teachers alike have found themselves engrossed with objectively-measurable facts and skills garnered from textbooks and lectures, rather than concerned with less tangible values related to character development.

At the same time the latter is, if anything, a greater responsibility than the former. Whether they want to or not, today's schools are playing a major role in the establishment of attitudes that create character. Consciously or unconsciously, directly or indirectly, the schools are making a contribution to the moral and ethical behavior of every child in attendance. It is important that this contribution be constructive, not destructive; that it be carefully planned for, as we plan for any other phase of the curriculum.

Instruction in moral, ethical and spiritual values is no easy matter to plan or to carry out. Nothing related to important attitude formation ever is, yet attitudes serve as guides in determining one's way of living. The task must be faced by all members of a teaching staff and direct efforts made to approach it with a step by step plan.

Classroom Approaches

Improving teaching for purposes of achieving moral and ethical objectives is made complicated by the lack of preparation by teachers in this area. Instruction in these values cannot be carried on as one might proceed with a new arithmetical process. It is much more difficult to teach for character development so that mere repetition of high-sounding phrases are not the only outcome.

Indirect, rather than direct methods seem to lend themselves best to permanent change in attitude. The teacher's own example is one of the most important means of instruction. Society has long recognized this as it set

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Dr. Eastburn, co-author of this article with Robert Topp, is president of Arizona State College in Flagstaff, (Ariz.). He previously served as Director of Research and Guidance in the Phoenix High Schools and Phoenix College. Many articles of his have appeared in educational magazines. For relaxation he enjoys hunting and fishing.

* Defining such terms as "moral," "ethical," and "character" is no simple task. For purposes of this paper, these terms are used to describe socially desirable attitudes and behavior that are generally recognized as such regardless of religious sect.

high standards of conduct for teachers in the community, but the teacher's example goes much further than this.

Seemingly insignificant attitudes of the teacher as shown in the classroom are clearly understood by the children. In many different ways the teacher's behavior in situations calling for ethically sound action demonstrates to the child the correct behavior. Most important, this is accomplished in a way that is fundamentally non-directive and consequently almost certainly more effectively transmitted.

For example, a third grade teacher makes a misstatement about the time for the all-school assembly her pupils are supposed to attend. Quite effectively, she teaches an ethical idea by the way she recognizes her error. If, when her mistake is evident, she reacts with "My notice must have been wrong," even third grade children will recognize that this is one way of behaving in situations of this nature.

If, on the other hand, she notes "Oh, I'm sorry, I made a mistake—we had better appoint someone to remind us of assembly times," the children are likely to get a different picture of what is the acceptable way to meet problems of this nature. Fortunately, the transfer to other similar situations in the lives of children is much broader than we might surmise.

There is no need to cite additional examples. Recognizing that opportunity presents itself almost continuously to teach such concepts by example, it behooves those of us who teach to think and act, ourselves, in accordance with the ethics of any situation. Children are embarrassingly keen in their perception of the teacher's viewpoints.

Curriculum Revision

Prerequisite to moral education as the teacher's example may be, there are other means of educating children toward wholesome relationships with others. The various methods and materials should be set down carefully through curriculum revision. A school's curriculum is its "master plan" and should come under close scrutiny as a school or school system embarks upon a program of character education.

A faculty that has become aware of the need for improvement in teaching ethical values might well start the year off by selecting that as their theme for the initial year and devoting most of their planning efforts to it. Pre-school conferences and continuing faculty study groups could be devoted to various aspects of the problem. Depending upon the inclination of the faculty, a special curriculum committee could be formed to study ways of incorporating character education into the curriculum. If committees of teachers are already established to work on various sections of the curriculum, these permanent committees could direct their efforts toward incorporating specific methods and materials in their courses of study or curriculum outlines.

Hand in hand with curricular planning, all members of the faculty should be encouraged to build their own understanding of moral and ethical education. Faculty libraries should circulate selected books and periodicals to the various school buildings so that teachers may have opportunity to learn as much as possible about the whole project. Speakers should be called in to address the faculty on methods of approaching various aspects of the subject.

The literature children are provided may be used to contribute to the establishment of ideals that may last all of their lives. Although reading in itself will aid much, discussions following the reading of selected stories, plays, poems and novels will bring out important ideas in a way that is much more effective than the lecturing by the teacher about the same concepts.

Dramatic productions at all age levels are particularly effective, for they enable the child to fit himself into various roles. So effective, in fact, has dramatic participation proved to be in getting close to the emotions of the players that psychodrama is taking an increasingly important place in the therapy of emotionally disturbed persons.

Benefit through drama is not confined to participants. Children in the audience characteristically become part of the production and vicariously live the various roles portrayed. The booing of the villain and the cheering of the hero gives some evidence of the close identification made by children with the spirit of the play. For this reason it is particularly important that plays encourage the establishment of higher ideals. Good should be rewarded, evil punished; antisocial or immoral behavior should never be glamorized for young children.

Setting aside a period of time to devote in a formal way to character education does not seem to be the best way to do the job, although that procedure might prevent complete neglect of this aspect of education. Some teachers could effectively use such a period without making it seem artificial and stiff to the children, but most could not. Consequently, steps must be taken to insure more than mere "incidental" teaching of ethics. As mentioned earlier, specific provision should be made for materials and methods to be used in the curriculum itself. The school library should provide selected readings at all levels for teachers to use in connection with their efforts to teach for character development. Such materials should be listed and methods described in courses of study and curriculum outlines.

More than any other factor in creating habitual and continuing teaching of ethical values is the viewpoint of the teacher. At every turn the teacher who is alert to the need can find opportunity to teach a moral lesson in a way that grows naturally out of the day's activities or from the content and discussion of the class. Each of us who teaches, regardless of the age of our students or the nature of the course we may be teaching, can establish in them ideals of moral conduct. Further than this, if our efforts are continuous from kindergarten through college, we may feel quite certain that influences in the other direction can be negated in all but a relatively few individuals.

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HOW AN ALL-SCHOOL EXHIBIT HELPS PUBLIC RELATIONS

M. L. KNAPP
Superintendent of Schools
Michigan City, Indiana

Teachers and administrators have been quite conscious of the values of good public relations for many years. The need to have a public well informed on the work being done in the public schools has increased with the sharp competition for tax dollars that has resulted from high federal and state taxes. The need has increased still more for informing the public concerning the school program because of the misleading and questionable attacks that have been launched in the last few years on the objectives and practices in public schools.

Parents have been showing more interest in the public schools in recent years. This is evidenced by the number of Citizens Committees formed in various communities to help the public understand the school program. Typical of the interest and work of such committees is that of the Needham Public School Association of Needham, Mass. Through the efforts of this group in 1952 a survey of parents' opinions about their schools was made. The results of the survey acquainted those working in the schools with parent reactions not only on curriculum content but also on methods used, equipment available, disciplinary practices, teacher-pupil relationships, etc. In the process the parents gained a better understanding of the schools. Together, then, parents and school personnel shared responsibility for working for desired improvements.

Many different means have been used to present pertinent information about schools to the citizens of a community. School administrators believe that the most effective way of interpreting the work of the schools to the parents is through the children who attend school. When children have fruitful and challenging learning experiences suited to their needs their happiness in their progress is reflected to their parents. There are many people in a community who do not have this close contact with schools, however, so other means must be used to keep them informed. School news items and pictures of school activitie carried in the daily press are helpful.

School programs and classwork broadcast regularly over local radio stations reach a considerable number of people. Many school corporations have reached the public

Third Grade Children Demonstrating Their Activities in "A Study of Mexico."

by distributing printed annual reports or other well organized and illustrated materials dealing with their schools. Other means such as Business-Industry-School visitation days, career days and other special days have been used to acquaint the community with the work in the schools.

We have used these various media in Michigan City and also an all-school exhibit. We regard this exhibit as one of our most effective means of demonstrating and visualizing to the public the work done in our schools. Due to the vast amount of work involved, however, we have such an exhibit only every five years.

Preparatory Classroom Activities

Our elementary schools operate a unit-activity or integrated type of program. In preparation for the exhibit all teachers on a given grade level select a unit of common interest. Each teacher on this level develops a complete unit and then selections are made by them from each of the individual units to make up the exhibit. This is necessary in order to conserve exhibit space. The work of all children in all classrooms, however, is represented in this cooperative effort. Naturally, this leads to visits to the whole exhibit by parents and friends of the children.

Our director of elementary education, who fostered the idea of the exhibit, serves as general chairman and coordinates the work of the various committees. She meets with teacher representatives from each grade level, kindergarten to sixth grade inclusive, and the departmental heads from the junior and senior high schools. Together they determine the nature of the exhibits in order to show the sequential development of the work done in our schools.

For our last exhibit the elementary grades selected and developed the following units: Kindergarten–Farm Unit, First Grade–Springtime, Second Grade–Transportation, Third Grade–Life in Mexico, Fourth Grade–Indiana, Fifth Grade–Makers of Our Country, Sixth Grade–South America. These units were selected because they were a definite part of the daily curricular work on the respective grade levels. Primarily they grew out of the social studies area but the exhibit showed how the other subject areas integrated into the development of the unit. Charts helped materially to show this.

On the third grade level, for example, teachers and pupils planned carefully how to secure information about people in other lands, especially Mexico. In the process of developing the unit they wrote letters to mayors of cities in Mexico and to Chambers of Commerce requesting information. They also wrote to railroad and air line companies. From local sources they invited citizens who had traveled in Mexico to talk to their groups and display materials they had brought back with them. From our visual aids department they secured films, slides and records dealing with Mexican life. The children utilized the information gained in making simple maps, weaving rugs, and fashioning pottery, some of which was so good it was fired and glazed. They learned Mexican songs and dances and did choral reading. They were delighted to acquire some Spanish words with the help of some members of our staff who spoke some Spanish. They received some number experience in computing costs of materials used and in figuring sizes for the necessary construction work for their booths. Some results of their work are shown in the picture of their exhibit.

Photographs courtesy Public Schools, Michigan City, Indiana

Parents and Interested Friends Examine the Exhibits

Physical Arrangements

The all-school exhibit is held in one large auditorium-gymnasium. A main floor space 110′ x 78′ is available together with a stage 60′ x 35′, thus providing a total of 10,600 square feet of exhibit space. The main floor is divided so that each grade level and each department has approximately 500 square feet of floor space in which to arrange its exhibit. This arrangement leaves ample walk space or aisles for visitors.

Many years of valuable experience as a teacher and principal have brought M. L. Knapp to his present position of Superintendent of Schools in Michigan City, Indiana. Frequently he has contributed articles to a number of other educational magazines. He and his family find their greatest pleasure, when time permits, in touring extensively in the United States, Canada and Mexico.

The exhibits were so arranged that visitors entering the main doors to the auditorium began with the kindergarten exhibit and then proceeded in turn through each of the elementary grade levels to the junior high school and senior high school exhibits. This provided an opportunity for them to sense more clearly the growth which takes place as pupils mature. It also showed the continuity and sequential development of the educational program. Perhaps, too, parents caught a glimpse of the ever broadening horizons which beckon their children to new learning experiences.

Demonstrations

There were many visitors who came to the exhibit who had no children in school. Most of them had not been in a school classroom for years. Many of them questioned whether children could do the things they saw in the exhibits. To satisfy their curiosity and doubts in this respect a planned program of demonstrations by the children was carried out each evening the exhibit was open. The demonstrations were staggered so that visitors could see children at different times in each exhibit developing types of materials used in the exhibit. For instance in the Mexican exhibit mentioned above some children were weaving, some making pottery and some working on charts. At stated intervals a group sang Mexican songs and did Mexican dances.

On the upper grade levels students worked on experiments in science, made garments, used power tools, operated a model office, etc. In the model office, visitors were received by the student office manager. They were invited not only to see the arrangement of the office but to dictate to student stenographers present, to use the dictaphones, calculators, comptometers and other machines. Visitors willingly waited with approval while their letters were typed or recordings transcribed.

The space on the stage was used to demonstrate the work of special teachers and departments. The director of audio-visual work and his assistants gave a continuous demonstration of the various types of materials used and how they contributed to the learning process. The director of guidance and counselors informed parents about the nature of their work and suggested how the homes and schools could cooperate more fully in helping children adjust themselves better in their home and school relationships. Special teachers in speech and hearing, the school physician and school nurse demonstrated some aspects of their work by use of audiometers, recorders, health charts, etc.

Effectiveness

The exhibit was kept open two consecutive evenings from six to ten o'clock. During each of these evenings approximately 3000 people viewed the exhibit. We estimated that nearly 5,000 different adults viewed the children's work. A number of them on the second night said they did not get to see all they wished to see the preceding evening or they wished to see it a second time. Older students visited the exhibit during the day but demonstrations were not in progress then.

While much work was involved for the staff in preparing the exhibit, it was a stimulating experience. It also gave them an opportunity, which they seldom have otherwise, of seeing how their work contributed to the whole educational picture.

This exhibit was a subject of conversation for several weeks after it closed. Since most of the impressions were favorable ones, several thousand people were conditioned favorably toward the work being done in the schools.

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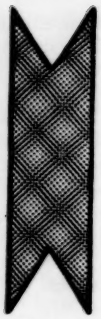

A BROADER CONCEPT OF NORMALCY

Ivan K. Garrison

"Mr. Brown, Johnny is learning some very bad habits from those mentally retarded children in special education."

"Mr. Brown, Sally said that she can't eat her lunch in the cafeteria because that poor little blind girl with the white eyes and that boy with cerebral palsy always eat at her table."

"Mr. Brown, I just don't think it's right to let *some* children sing in the chorus. That Mary C. is always making eyes at Robin and trying to sit next to him. I just won't have him taking up with her."

"Mr. Director, one of *your* counselors has been working with James for three months. James is still sullen and defiant; he's 16 and I think we should expel him from school."

"Mr. Director, as a school principal I appreciate the work of your staff and your philosophy of trying to integrate these exceptional children into the regular program, but we still have quite a few problems with these children."

Perhaps it seems strange to suggest a broader concept of normalcy when we are concerned with the exceptional child. But I have a very firm conviction that we are not going to be able to do much more for exceptional children until we can bring about a broader concept of normalcy. It may seem strange, but a broader concept of normalcy implies that we have a broader concept of individual differences.

We have gone a long way in providing for individual differences, but we still have so very far to go in understanding and accepting individual differences. This, to me, is the greatest stumbling block in the way of the integration of the exceptional child into society.

The Narrow Concept

I am taking this backdoor approach to the understanding and acceptance of individual differences as a result of a broader concept of normalcy because I believe we need to bring about certain changes in our thinking. One might say that we started in reverse with our programs for the child who differs. We provided for him before we understood him. We began to make provisions for him even before we understood the normal child. We took the child who differs from the regular classroom and placed him in a special classroom with a specially trained teacher. But before the special services were introduced and labels put on children, every teacher had responsibility for all the children in her room. Perhaps she didn't understand all the children, perhaps she didn't understand normal child development, but at least she had to accept all of the children. In separating the regular teacher, and many times the administrator, from any and all of these children who differed, we (specialists) have been contributing to a very narrow concept of normalcy.

There is no intention to imply that we do not need specially trained teachers and special classes. On the contrary we need more specifically and more specially trained teachers and more special classes. However, we should point out some of the dangers inherent in a program of special education. Sometimes in our zeal to do a good job we move into a school situation where there have been no special services before. We assume an air of omnipotence. We accept responsibility for all problems of our special charges. Gradually we realize that we have more problems than we can handle. Too late, we recognize that we have been contributing to the development of the idea among regular teachers and personnel that they are not equipped in any way to handle any of these children's problems.

Whether special educators may or may not have contributed to the school's narrow concept of normalcy it is fairly safe to generalize that such a concept does exist. Perhaps I can illustrate this. In many enlightened communities, one may ask an educator, "What are you doing to provide for individual differences?" The answer may be, "Well, in the regular grades we attempt to change our teaching techniques so that each child proceeds at his own rate of development. We try to consider each child as a unique individual. For those who deviate from the normal—mentally, physically, socially, or emotionally—we provide special classes and specially trained teachers." (This sounds good!) Then, too often, we find that the regular classroom teacher, the janitor, the superintendent, the principal, and the community at large feel that they have little or no responsibility for these children.

If we ask these educators to state their philosophy and the theoretical foundations of their curriculum for the mentally retarded, they say, "Well, we set up special classes for the mentally retarded because their mental processes differ

As Director of Special Education in the Jacksonville, (Ill.) Public Schools and Editor of *Exceptional Children*, Ivan Garrison is particularly well qualified to write this article for the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. He has taught and written extensively on this subject. Fishing, music, and his 9 year old daughter are his chief outside interests.

quantitatively and qualitatively. We recognize, accept, and provide for this difference in their academic program, but at the same time we try to get them to *behave normally.*"

Now, let's look at the other end of the continuum of mental development. In other words, let's look at the gifted child. His mental processes also differ quantitatively and qualitatively. We can provide for this difference academically, but actually if we were to provide the type of program that the gifted child really needs, we would be asking him to be different. *We would ask him to demonstrate his abnormality.*

We want the mentally retarded to have a different type of educational program but we want him to conform to our standards of normalcy. If we provide the type of program that the gifted child needs, we would be asking him to be different. *He* should not conform to the standards of normal development. In America we have a paradox. We worship the average, which I have not defined as yet, or the normal, again which I have not defined, and we worship conformity, yet our American creed asks us to recognize the uniqueness of each individual's worth and the contribution he may make to society. We are obligated by our democratic principles to capitalize on individual differences.

Average vs. Normalcy

Yes, we worship the average man, or the normal man, even though we don't always know what these terms mean. We have used the two terms synonymously, and as a result we have succeeded in confusing ourselves. Both terms are really more applicable to statistics than they are to human beings. The use of the two terms in connection with intelligence has colored and confused our thinking in consideration of all other aspects of human behavior. Actually the term "average" refers to a point on a scale. Mathematically there could only be one figure for the word "average." Since intelligence tests are man made and standardized they lend themselves to point scoring. Psychologists are aware that they are measuring performance or intellectual "output" on a test and that the point score is probably a fairly good reflection of the intellectual potential of the individual (within certain limitations). Sometimes educators, who are more frequently confronted with point scores in terms of I. Q. than they are with complete psychological reports, tend to ignore any test limitations. Since it is possible to find a point score that agrees with the statistical average, we sometimes think of any minor deviation from this average as being of major significance to educators.

The semantics of the terms normal, normality or normalcy has been distorted by synonomy with the term average. Actually, even in relation to intelligence, normal refers to a range of point scores. The characteristics that make a statistical curve normal dictate that a determined number of cases fall within a certain *range* on either side of the arithmetical average. Too often we forget this *range* of normalcy, we try to pinpoint it as we have average and this is not only impractical—it is impossible.

Other aspects of human development cannot lend themselves as readily to this point scaling. Yet because of the influence of a limited knowledge of intelligence testing, we act as though there is a definitive average for classroom behavior, social and emotional adjustment, aggressiveness, cooperation, temperament, and so forth. There probably is a normal range of behavior in each case but the range is wider than most of us are willing to accept. Then, too, average in one area of development does not imply averageness in other areas. Neither does normalcy in one or more areas imply normalcy in all areas.

Actually a person could score on an intelligence test several points above or below the average and still be within the range of normality. This same situation would prevail if we were comparing people in weight, height, body build, vision, or any other aspect of development. The individual might conceivably conform to the statistical average in one area of physical development, be below average in mental development but still within the range of normality, be below normal in vision, and above normal in hearing, and so on. Yet we, in schools, are still inclined to talk about normal school pupils.

—Perkins Institution, Watertown, Mass.

He's Normal in Everything but Vision and Even That Doesn't Quench His Spirits.

Do We Fear A Broad Concept?

We must clear away the confusion which exists as a result of the misuse of these two terms "average" and "normal." We all (and I don't mean just specialists) must help in freeing society of its *overgrown fear of deviations from its fortuitous standards of normalcy.* Some folks cringe from any indictment of the so-called normal, but this fear that I mention is engendered within the so-called normal group as a result of its own normalcy. We have so beclouded our concept of normalcy that the normal man must not only be in the normal range of intelligence, he must belong to the middle class and follow middle-class values and mores.

This has been said before, but it bears repeating. Teachers are recruited from the tail-end of the middle-class. In the degree that we hold certain ideas, values, mores as being immune to criticism—to that same degree do we as middle-class educators foster prejudice, intolerance, and a narrow concept of normalcy. Oh, yes! We are the salt of the earth. We of the middle class conform. We have made America great. We can be counted on in a pinch. But some of these same characteristics that have compelled us to promulgate the desirability of conformity and therefore mold a strong middle-class have restricted our vision. *This drive for conformity goes far beyond the limits necessary for the social good.* The characteristics attributed to the salt of the earth have become a millstone around our necks in making full recognition of individual differences.

This is one of the reasons why those who conform most closely to the accepted middle-class concept of normalcy intellectually, physically, socially, and emotionally, and racially are most suspicious and hostile towards deviants, who, in spite of their label or contrary training, show the same "normal" adjustment patterns.

This is a very basic fear. It operates in other areas of living than in our concern over the deviant. This same mechanism functions in the formulation of any narrow concept such as supremacy of races or religion, rigid class structure, masculinity, femininity, or any of the other stereotypes. Did you ever stop to think that as civilization increases, that is as more and more worthwhile goals are set, the number of abnormals or deviants may be increased unless the possibilities of tolerance and recognition of individual differences are thoroughly explored and put into practice?

How broad is your concept of normalcy? Let's do a little introspection right now. Can you think of the normal child as one who may have some defects? Or do you think of a child who has certain defects as being almost normal in many ways. If the latter is true, you have a very limited concept of normalcy.

We are not arguing that exceptional children are normal or average. We are saying that they are much closer to normalcy than they are to the average and in many areas they are closer to normalcy than they are to

—Perkins Institution, Watertown, Mass.

Handicapped Children Engage in Many Activities of Normal Pupils

the extremes. Average and normal are two different concepts. If we do not confuse the two terms, and if our concept of normalcy can be broadened, then the scaled, or rational distance, between deviancy and the limits of normalcy is lessened. Individual deviations and the deviant individual should be more acceptable because they are closer to us than we thought.

We have to point out the differences of exceptional children. It is because of these differences that the exceptional child needs a special program. Of course, we will keep norms in mind while we are planning the school program, but please note the plural use. We will not be thinking just in terms of mental development but we will be thinking in terms of social development, emotional development, physical development, and all the other aspects of human development. The exceptional child's rate of development in one or more areas may differ from these norms. But let's not forget that aside from these differences, exceptional children follow the phylogenetic development of the human race. Within the ranges of mental development that are usually accepted in public schools these children all grow from childhood to adults.

A Broad Concept Basic To Planning

A broader concept of normalcy would help educators to see that all deviations from normal, including mental retardation, may be handled much more intelligently than by insisting that these deviants adopt modes of behavior that are alien to them. (The effects of the failure of educators to recognize this is most aptly demonstrated in school systems wherein no program for the mentally retarded exists or where watered down curriculums are followed. The mentally retarded is either expected to conform to all standards of behavior outside of a special class or he is the public school version of the court fool.)

We are really not so far removed from the days when we considered mentally retardeds as court fools. Some of us still look upon the possibility of normal adjustment for the handicapped as ridiculous. We have related total normal development in our thinking to normal adjustment. We watch the handicapped child mimic his unlabeled peers and we find his efforts at working out everyday problems of living humorous in the same way that humor is evoked when we watch a monkey dressing himself or smoking a cigarette.

With a recognition of a broader concept of normalcy, two other courses are open. The *first* course of action is to help the exceptional child to find satisfaction in the pursuit of his own interests within the range of his own abilities.

This may mean setting up an educational or training program that is radical departure from that plan for the unlabeled. This departure may be more financially expensive for schools. It may cause lifted eyebrows among teachers and parents of unlabeled children. It may provoke many comments such as those listed in the opening paragraphs or —"We better quit worrying and spending money on the mentally retarded, the gifted and the blind (in other words, the exceptional child) and concentrate on more for the normal child." (Poor mentally blind misguided society.) These comments after the inception of a program for exceptional children come as surely as night follows the setting sun. Unfortunately, we sometimes fail to impress parents with the fact that their children's differences are being provided for, too.

All of these and many more problems may arise but in the meantime if we follow this course of action we may be helping an individual assume a course of behavior that will make it unnecessary for him to take refuge in a private world he has fashioned for himself, or one that has been fashioned by others for him but just as much apart from society.

The second course, an increased understanding and acceptance by society of these deviants and a recognition by society of its responsibilities, must keep pace with the educational program.

We do not solve our problems of the recognition of individual differences by providing special classes. We, as educators, must take an active part in creating or helping to develop an understanding and acceptance by the home, the school, and the community of individual differences as well as seeing to it that provisions are made for these differences. This must be a program of action. When we as educators accept this responsibility we will be recognizing that we are not just providing for deviants but we will be providing for all children.

We cannot meet this responsibility by conferences at the beginning of school for all new personnel, nor by a few staff meetings during the school year. Special teachers must enlist the aid of so-called regular teachers in helping them think about their special problems. Teachers in the community must be prepared to answer questions that come from the community about the special program, and why it is needed. They must demonstrate effectively to their fellow teachers and friends in the community that they accept all children. Every note that is received, every phone call that is made should receive a positive interpretation by the principal, or administrator, or teacher that is contacted.

Teacher training institutions must insist that all teachers, not only have preparation which leads to the understanding of child development and the limitations that a handicap of any nature would impose on this child development, but they must be sure that all teachers have an understanding of exceptional children.

We need a program of research that will supply us with facts to take the place of fancy.

In developing this school and community understanding we must try to bring about a change in attitude among the uninitiated doctors, educators, social workers, psychologists, psychiatric teams, social agencies, vocational rehabilitation agencies, courts, employment services, and parents. A new attitude which we would hope to see developed would be one wherein all would accept as a matter of course that each child is deserving of equal educational opportunities. It would imply an acceptance that of course this child's educational, vocational, and social needs will be met. Of course, he is an integral part of society, the community and the school. As a result of receiving special services, he is no more obligated to the school, or agency or parent that provided these services than any other child. The school has no right to expect this person to show any better behavior or any different attitude toward his benefactors, or demonstrate any more appreciation than any of his unlabeled peers.

And finally, we would hope that this attitude would be one wherein integration would be considered a policy and it would be unnecessary to consider it as a plan. Handicapped individuals can be integrated into any situation to which they can make normal adjustment. We, as educators, must help other educators and the other agencies which have been mentioned before to understand that a handicapped child learns to make this adequate adjustment by the process of integrating rather than by being integrated. We must help others, also, to see, understand, and accept that adequate functioning is one of the ways by which normality is clinically defined. Behavior is normal when it represents a straightforward and satisfying adjustment to the outer world. It is abnormal when it represents an attempt to escape from anxiety, inferiority, and inadequacy. By thinking of integration as a policy rather than a plan we will be allowing the handicapped an opportunity to develop the straightforward satisfying adjustment by, with, or without the help of specialists.

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COOPERATING WITH THE SPEECH CORRECTIONIST

Ernest C. Fossum

For those children whose speech presents no unusual deviations the speech training included in a well planned language arts curriculum usually provides the instruction and experience needed for continued growth and improvement as speakers. A surprising number of teachers, however, have reported that over half of their pupils have speech habits and characteristics that constitute teaching problems. In certain instances grossly substandard speech has appeared to be the accepted standard of a community. Granted that the bulk of these problems may not be speech disorders as that term is ordinarily used, most surveys report that from 5 to 10 per cent of school children have speech defects requiring clinical retraining. These problems range from a few sound substitutions (way for lay, for example) to speech which is almost, if not entirely, unintelligible. It has long been recognized that the classroom teacher cannot be expected to have the knowledge and skill required to deal with all aspects of these speech problems.

The Speech Correctionist in the School

Speech specialists are being made available in an increasing number of school communities. These speech correctionists help to fill the need for well-rounded, systematic and permanent speech correction programs. Their services include the following: (1) surveys of the speech and hearing needs of all school children, (2) diagnosis and intensive remedial instruction of especially difficult cases, (3) in-service instruction for classroom teachers, (4) supervision of the speech correction work done by classroom teachers, (5) counseling of parents, and (6) cooperation with physicians, dentists, social workers, psychologists and other individuals and agencies that serve the speech needs of children. The specialists perform a particularly helpful function in counseling parents regarding desirable changes in parental policies and parent-child relationships, home instructions, and medical, dental or psychological treatment which may be advisable in some instances.

Dr. Fossum, a ranking speech correctionist, is Associate Professor of Speech at Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa. Over the years he has conducted speech correction courses for teachers and served as consultant to teachers on problems of speech. His writings on Speech Correction have been published in various journals and for the past five years he has conducted a 15-minute classroom radio program "Mend Your Speech" which reaches teachers, school children and many parents.

The teacher is naturally interested in understanding clearly her relationship to the speech specialist and how she can best utilize this new resource in her work with individual pupils. It should be clearly understood that the speech correctionist is the classroom teacher's helper and co-worker. The teacher, as always, is the key figure in the educational process. The value of the specialist's services to the teacher in meeting the speech needs of individual children will depend to a large extent on the teacher's initiative and willingness to cooperate. Although the speech correctionist accepts certain cases for personal instruction, it must be emphasized that he does not hope to achieve the desired results working alone. In most situations he sees the child from one to three times a week in sessions ranging from fifteen to thirty minutes in length. What happens to the children between these sessions often determines the success or failure of the speech correctionist's work. The classroom teacher must be relied upon to extend the benefits of the speech correction work throughout the school day. What the teacher and the specialist each will do for an individual child can best be determined by working and planning together in a close cooperative relationship.

Dealing With the Various Types of Speech Problems

An understanding of the different types of speech problems and the procedures for dealing with them is essential to a good professional understanding between the teacher and the speech correctionist. The teacher needs to know why the speech correctionist accepts some cases and not others for remedial instruction.

Certain children who in the classroom show grossly substandard speech may be found by the speech correctionist to have no actual speech defects which contribute to the problem. The speech inadequacy may spring from social insecurity, need for training in social interrelationship, low speech standards, and lack of command of acceptable language usage. A frequent error of this type is a generally garbled and indistinct type of speech commonly referred to as "mumbling." A wide range of pronunciation errors such as "jist" for "just" and of inappropriate language and grammar usage such as "ain't" and "was you there" add to the problem. Included also is extreme reluctance to speak and "stage-fright." Because these problems are to a large extent social in nature they usually respond best to a classroom approach through which students are encouraged to set attainable speech standards for the group, develop favorable speech attitudes and are given systematic speech training. The speech correctionist can give helpful suggestions to the teacher

in terms of the needs of particular individuals or groups.

Some children may have speech problems in combination with other problems. A kindergarten child, for instance, may present very inadequate speech, but he may also be so immature socially and physically as to make direct remedial instruction inadvisable. While the child's need for speech help is obvious, the speech correctionist may conclude that the child can be best served by allowing him to mature for a time in the stimulating environment of the kindergarten without special remedial instruction. Another child's poor reading ability may be the real source of his problem. Home conditions, retardation, poor health, emotional conflicts, physical shortcomings and other factors may serve to complicate the problem. It is often difficult to determine which of a child's various problems is the fundamental one. In these cases the speech correctionist may wish to make a thorough study of many aspects of the child's behavior in addition to speech. He may refer the child to other specialists for examinations and testing. On the basis of the findings the speech correctionist may decide that the first approach to the child's problem should be along lines other than remedial speech instruction.

Speech proficiency is not attained at the same age by all children. The first eight or nine years of life are considered a developmental period for the speech sounds. Certain of the sounds such as *r*, *l* and *s* are among the latest to be acquired. If it appears that the child is not ready for intensive retraining, the speech correctionist will help the teacher provide a favorable speech environment which will contribute to the eventual development of the sounds.

provided in the classroom. These problems may be grouped into three categories:

a. *Inadequate voice:* A voice deviation in a school child sufficient to be regarded by the teacher as a teaching problem is likely to have an organic or psychological base which would make it unwise for the teacher to apply remedial exercises except at the advice of the speech specialist and a physician.

b. *Stuttering:* This is perhaps the most baffling of all speech problems and the teacher cannot be expected to know what to do in every case. Helping the child who stutters, however, requires teamwork involving the specialist, the teacher and parents, and often others with whom the child is associated. Under guidance of the correctionist the teacher can play an important role in behalf of the stutterer.

c. *Articulation problems:* There are many children on all grade levels who cannot speak plainly even when they try hard to do so. The problem is that the child is unable to articulate or to form properly one or more of the speech sounds required for clear and understandable speech. Efforts to induce these children to speak plainly by simply asking them to do so are nearly always fruitless. Practically nothing is gained by having a child with a lisp practice *s* words or sentences by himself until after he has first learned to produce the *s* sound correctly.

Articulation errors are by far the most common of all types of speech correction problems. They are also the errors with which the teacher can be of most help to the correctionist. At some time, in some way, and to some extent the speech correctionist usually calls upon the teacher

Photo courtesy of Hingham School Dept.

In all cases in which the need for clinical speech training is not clearly indicated at the time of observation, the speech specialist relies heavily upon the teacher to carry out the suggested treatment and to coordinate the service of other specialists. The teacher and specialist must keep in close touch in order to know when a change in procedure should be made.

The speech cases which the speech correctionist is likely to accept for personal remedial instruction, are, in general, those in which speech is the main problem and who require clinical retraining of the sort that cannot be to help with the retraining of the child with problems of articulation.

Correcting Consonant Sounds

The procedure outlined below represents an approach used widely, although with some variations, by speech correction teachers for the correction of faulty consonant sounds. The similarity between these procedures and those employed daily by teachers in relation to language arts, phonics, reading readiness, reading, spelling, guidance and other school work should be readily apparent. The speech

correctionist helps the teacher largely by suggesting how she can adapt and modify the procedures she is already using in order to help meet the speech correction needs of her children.

General methods: Among the methods of speech correction in general use today the stimulus method and the phonetic placement method are the best known.

The stimulus method is based on the theory that speech is learned through hearing. If a sound is faulty then the speaker's concept of that sound also is faulty. The child who says *tee* for *see,* for instance actually may not distinguish these two sounds in his mind. He hears no *s* "tune," as it were. He may actually be thinking *t* instead of *s.* To relearn a sound by the stimulus method, the child needs to learn to recognize the sound to be learned and to distinguish it from the error and other sounds. This involves the familiar sound-discrimination work of the type done in phonics instruction. In addition the child needs to be stimulated by repeated examples of the sound made correctly. The teacher says the sound and the child listens. Continued at intervals over a period of time this procedure helps to develop in the child's mind a correct impression of the sound to be learned. The stronger this impression becomes through repeated "bombardments" of the correct sound, the more it seeks to express itself. It is like a tune which "runs through the head." After the proper amount of stimulation, the sound is brought out by having the child imitate the teacher's stimulus. The length of time needed varies from a few days to many months. The speech correctionist can help the teacher work out means of providing sound stimulation as part of the daily school routine for the children who need it.

In the phonetic placement method attention is given to the placement of the tongue, lips and jaw, and to the movement of these organs in producing a sound. Sounds such as *m, p, b, wh, w, th, f* and *v* whose movements are quite readily visible can be taught by having the child imitate the teacher's movements as she produces the sounds. The nature and formation of speech sounds and the relationship among sounds is a study in itself and unless the teacher has a knowledge of phonetics she will have to rely upon the speech correctionist to suggest specific means of applying phonetic placement procedures for the less visible speech sounds.

Most speech correctionists combine the stimulus and phonetic placement methods in the ways they find most helpful to individual children. Usually placement procedures are not used until the child has first had a generous amount of ear-training and stimulation.

Steps in correcting faulty sounds: After the speech has been analyzed and it has been decided that certain sounds should be worked on, the speech correctionist follows an orderly procedure similar to the following:

1. Provide ear-training and stimulation.
2. Help the child produce the new sound by acoustic imitation and by phonetic placement.
3. Practice the new sound in words and sentences to strengthen it.
4. Help the child use the new sound in daily speech.

This procedure provides that the child first learn to make the speech sounds correctly before they are practiced and before the child can be expected to use the correct sounds in his daily speech.

Correcting Speech In the Classroom

From the experience of other teachers, speech correctionists, and from pupils themselves has been gleaned the following list of "do's" for the classroom teachers who, in cooperation with speech specialists, are undertaking to help children with speech errors:

1. Realize that you will not correct the error simply by making reference to it from time to time. *Speech must be taught.*
2. Make a definite plan whereby the speech error will be worked on over a period of time. Be as systematic as you are in your teaching generally.
3. Realize that the way the child will react to your remedial procedures—whether he will enjoy or resent them —will be determined largely by your own attitude toward the child, toward speech inadequacies and toward the correction of these inadequacies.
4. Build feelings of confidence, security, self-respect, pleasure in communicating with others. If your remedial procedures do not contribute to these feelings, it will be necessary to change your approach. The child should know that you do not disapprove of him as a person although you find something to be desired in his speech.
5. Realize that in the early stages of the remedial process it is advisable to accept the child's manner of speech as the best he can do at the time and to allow him to participate free of criticism in all speaking activities. When he is capable of better speech, some reminding and special rewarding may be helpful to bring about the transfer.
6. Regard the remedial procedure as a normal and accepted part of the process of school teaching, as natural as giving help in arithmetic, and it will be so regarded by the children and parents.
7. Seek help, counsel and guidance from speech consultants, nurses and other individuals, agencies and institutions that help to serve the speech needs of school children.

Helpful References

1 Fossum, Ernest C., *Mend Their Speech. The Classroom Teacher and the Speech Correctionist Work Together,* Cedar Falls, Iowa: Extension Division, 1953. A 44-page booklet. Price 25 cents.

2 Johnson, Wendell, et al., *Speech Handicapped School Children,* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Authoritative text. Written for teachers.

3 Nemoy, E., and Davis S., *The Correction of Defective Consonant Sounds,* Boston: Expression Company, 1937. Excellent source book for methods and exercises.

4 Scott, L., and Thompson, J., *Talking Time,* St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company, 1951. Contains fascinating ear-training and practice exercises for classroom use.

What functions are peculiar to the junior high school? In professional parlance, they are high sounding: (1) Integration, (2) Exploration, (3) Guidance, (4) Differentiation, (5) Socialization, (6) Articulation.

To descend to a more earthy linguistic level, these pompous polysyllables mean that the junior high tries (1) to lead your child to make all his past and present learning a part of his present behavior; (2) to get him to widen his horizons and discover his talents; (3) to help him make good educational, social, and vocational choices; (4) to provide the plant and the personnel necessary to develop his interests, abilities, and personality; (5) to help him adjust to his present and future surroundings; (6) to make the transition to high school easier. (From *Newton School Age*, a quarterly publication of the Newton, Mass. Public Schools.)

Here is something to ponder. Speaking at the dedication of the Memorial Library at the University of Wisconsin, Howard Mumford Jones said:

We are properly proud of the small percentage of illiteracy in the United States. But literacy is of itself no great qualification for the kind of reading I have just described. A man is supposed to be literate if he can make out large print. Even if the state of literacy goes beyond this, even if the reader takes a weekly magazine and a morning and an evening paper, he may be still, if not in a state of illiteracy, then in a state of illiterature. Illiterature I may briefly define as the acquired capacity to dislike one book as heartily as another. I say "acquired capacity" because children at one end of the scale and well-educated persons at the other are not frightened either by the date on a title page or the fact that the print is small. It is during the in-between stage that illiterature seizes upon the vast majority of the American public and holds them forever in its grip. Illiterature is that state of mind which expects the writer to do all the work. It reduces reading to a spectator sport. It says in effect to the writer: "Of course you had only me in mind when you wrote this book, and if you do not immediately address yourself to my personal interests at this very moment, I shall return to Mickey Spillane." Illiterature, in sum, says to the writer: "I dare you to amuse me." It is not thus that we shall hear Pericles or Shakespeare speak to us. It is not thus that in this Library we may draw nutriment from either the literature of knowledge or the literature of power.

A Folk Art Museum, to be known as the Abby Aldrich Rockefeller Museum, will be built in Williamsburg, Virginia by Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr. The new museum, to be erected near the Williamsburg Inn, will house the collection of 19th century American folk art presented to Williamsburg by Mrs. Rockefeller and will commemorate her pioneer interest in the preservation of the homespun arts of America, a field in which she was one of the early collectors.

The distinguished collection comprises over 400 paintings, sculptures, and examples of miscellaneous domestic crafts such as needlework, ceramics, and metalwork. With the completion of the new museum, the entire collection will be assembled for the first time and placed on public view. The new museum will be located outside of the restored area of Williamsburg and will have no connection with 18th century exhibitions there. It will be administered, however, by Colonial Williamsburg.

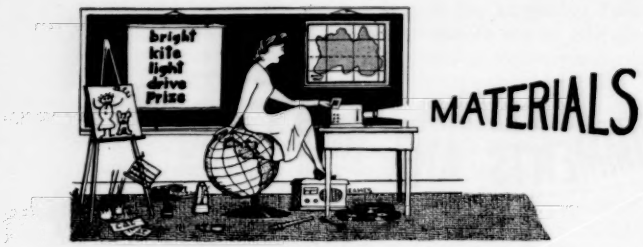
The Museum is planned as a series of rooms suggestive of domestic interiors similar to the surroundings in which the objects were originally to be found. Emphasis will be given to regional aspects of folk art, which will be reflected in the decoration and architecture of the various rooms. The museum opening is expected in late 1955.

Children and TV — Making the Most of It, a new 40 page bulletin, has just been published by the Association for Childhood Education International (1200 15th Street, N.W., Washington 5, D. C.), price seventy-five cents, in response to requests of parents and teachers for immediate help on the problem. Outstanding educators familiar with children and with TV have combined to present a positive and constructive approach to television and family living.

In it, James Hymes says, "Don't ever feel that your home is the only battleground. . . . Nor are you missing out in some magical recipes that work wonders in other families. . . . Television is like any other magnificent lure that comes along. . . . The wise ways you have found to cope with all the other complexities will stand you in good stead." Paul Witty writes, "Taste and discrimination are learned. They are always subject to further refinement. Their development is a life-long process. An early start is desirable. Helping children select their television programs thoughtfully is one place to begin."

There is discussion of the effect of television advertising; the teacher's role in utilizing in and out of school experiences with TV; and a variety of anecdotes of family solutions to TV in their homes.

The Connecticut Education Association has announced that 50 per cent of public school teachers in Connecticut are getting maximums of $5000.



KNOW-HOW family, the story of the usefulness of soda, is an excellent comic-book type of teaching aid. In a 4 by 5-inch format, it shows soda used to sweeten milk-handling utensils, in cooking, for insect stings and bites, and for metal cleaning. A proper warning of soda's use as an antacid is refreshing. Excellent styling. In quantity for your class from Church and Dwight Co., Inc., 70 Pine St., New York 5, N. Y.

General Electric News Digest, with items from industry, each with a little cartoon, is fine for pupil reports. Let children make home-made slides copying the cartoons (which are just the right size) and give a science talk. GE will send this to you regularly if you ask them to—Editor, NEWS DIGEST, General Electric Company, Schenectady 5, N. Y.

LIFE filmstrips are beginning to furnish lecture notes for their excellent productions taken from the color pages of the magazine. Robert MacCurdy of Watertown adapted the notes on THE ATOM. Free with the purchase of the filmstrip, which costs $6. Worth it.

Non-food Products of Meat Packing from Armour and Co., Public Relations Dept., Chicago 9, Ill., in quantity for upper elementary and junior high school is excellent. Some paragraph headings: Curled hair; Catgut; Glycerine; Hormones; Fertilizer; Pharmaceuticals. A good flow chart makes it easy to organize a series of reports for the integrated social-studies-science group.

The 6th Institute of Northwest Resources. The 6th Institute of Northwest Resources, Oregon State College, Corvallis, Oregon will be held from June 21 through July 3. This is a field study of high interest to natural and social scientists. Three credits at the graduate level, course fee $21, trip fees $40. Total cost estimated at $125-$150. Write to Prof. J. Granville Jensen for more information. Among the day's trips are a visit to a ranch, irrigation studies, recreation areas, gold fields, and a visit to the "Switzerland of America," Wallowa Mountain recreation area.

Look to the Sky, a picture book of aviation for the young scholar of grades one and two. Good questions for discussion, the whole thing planned by classroom teachers and an aviation specialist. Ask for this through National Science Teachers Assn., 1201 16th St. N.W. Washington 6, D. C.

The Living Blackboard and ***Time for Science*** are two new TV programs sponsored by the school department of the city of New York. They are typical of the emphasis and variety of science programs offered, programs which are watched avidly by children and adults. Channel 2 will have an educational station.

Model Weather Station Kit, produced by Models of Industry, Inc., 2804 Tenth Street, Berkeley, Calif. is a learn-by-doing kit with 23 experiments that illustrate basic laws affecting weather. It has 10 instruments to construct, a 40-page handbook with cartoon-type directions, and an 8-page Leaders' Guide. With it is a 20-page Teachers' Manual written by Jeff B. West. Any quantity, $4.95 f.o.b. Berkeley, weight 2 lbs. 6 oz. The Electrical Kit by the same producers, 28 experiments, $5.95 each, 35c shipping cost. Flight Kit for high schools and colleges, $49.50 f.o.b.

Probably the most widely read article on the teaching profession is the one recently appearing in three national magazines. It was run as a service to the public over the signature of the New York Life Insurance Co. Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, asked "Should Your Child be a Teacher?" He answered that if you really appreciate what you are accomplishing, there is no more exciting or challenging career. The community respects you. Your income is relatively stable and is rising everywhere. Your job is steady, with sick leave and good retirement benefits. He doesn't say this, but he might have: Teachers are the hope of the world today.

You can obtain reprints, with many more pictures like the one above, from the New York Life Insurance Co., New York City.

The
New England Teachers' Agency, Inc.

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PORTLAND, MAINE

Doris A. Lewin, Manager

Member, Nat. Association of Teachers Agencies

NEW BOOKS

Recent Books

Some day, someone will devote the opening chapter of a book, which involves the duties of our secondary school teachers, to an accounting of time available for teaching and other related school assignments. One assumption would be that the average work week for teachers, like that of business and industry, should be a 40 hour one. When this weekly average is multiplied by 36, the number of weeks in the school year, the bank account of time available for all school purposes amounts to 1,440 hours. The first withdrawal, 900 hours, is for time the teacher actually spends in her classroom conducting regularly organized classes. Of the new balance of 540 hours some time must be devoted to the correction of papers and preparation for the next day. A meager allotment of 60 minutes a day demands another 180 hours. The balance, now 360 hours, must serve all other duties, special assignments, programs, guidance, extra curricular activities etc. Absurd? of course it is! A 50 or 60 hour week would still leave insufficient time for all that should be done. Make the week a 50 or 60 hour one! Time still short? Then let's look at programs that are possible.

Developmental Guidance in Secondary School[1] by Little, Chapman, Wilson, et al., is a good book of its type. It is well written and adequately documented. It covers the curriculum, sociometrics, psychotherapy, personality development, administration, clinical psychology, family relations, and a host of sub-heads and supplemental topics. But it isn't reasonable for the average teacher. The writer started to estimate how much time it would take for a teacher to do just the important items noted in the book. It was easier to compute six years of additional graduate work required to gain the minimal competence to perform these functions at an acceptable professional level.

The era of Romanticism in literature crashed with Don Quixote. Isn't there a Cervantes on the horizon to write *fini* to the era of 150-hour per week guidance? If the church, the family, and the state have failed so abysmally in providing for youth, must the teacher perform the impossible task of substituting for all three?

Ever since the Harvard Report came out with its challenge to the term "self-expression," and even before, art educators were seeking ways of implementing a program of creative art that could be justified in terms of better art experiences for children without hitting against the ribs of rigid copying on the one side and the extreme of "laissez-faire" on the other. More and more books on this subject are being better and better written. Almost any experienced art teacher can say of this book "Why didn't I write it?" It could easily overlap the well-thought-out plans of many teachers. Such a book is *Self-Expression through Art*[2] by Elizabeth Harrison.

Elizabeth Harrison is evidently one of the eager and intelligent group which has grown up with the century through changing art methods in the schools. What she has written will be familiar to her contemporaries in art education with similar experience but it will be appreciated for its lively and fresh approach to common problems. To classroom teachers in the elementary and junior high schools the book offers help to those who are in a transitional stage of changing from the so-called copy "art" to the genuine art expression that we call creative and self-expressive because the artist gives of himself – makes a contribution. As Mrs. Harrison says, it is "life as experienced by the children." Also, "We have become unable to interpret because our perceptions are overlaid so deeply by preconceived ways of thinking." The term self-expression is used throughout the book in a positive sense. The author does not go into involved explanations, her vocabulary is clear, her humor and turns of English phrases are delightful. She skillfully condenses a whole area of considerations into one short paragraph, such as the fact that students in the intermediate grades (7 and 8) often take more kindly to studies in arrangement than to a topic demanding imagination which requires him to put down what is in his mind and reveal something of himself, something he is frequently reluctant to do, unless he has gained self-confidence earlier.

Allowances must be made for the connotations of familiar words that are used that may carry an association that at first does not sound creative, such as the word "pattern." However, further reading clears this up. So important does she consider "the purpose of modern education to encourage the child to think for himself" that she has a separate section in the middle of the book on tracing and copying called A Reminder.

There may be, and probably are, some art educators (this reviewer being one of them) who deplore the use of any kind of formula for figure drawing. It only forms an immovable obstacle in the mind around which inspiration and first-hand experience have to find their way. Yet, it is easy to see why she does it without wishing to justify it. Likewise, the calendar of What To Do in the back of the book looks more cut and dried than it really is. Although it appears repetitious one can see that it is all in the handling of it. Her caution in the use of it should be heeded.

The reproductions of childrens' work in color speak well of her success as a teacher. Her own chart-like drawings are for clarification and are better done than most of this type. Her understanding of children shines through the book, and their work is "appraised from the view of the child's experience." Contact with the child is established by approval. On page 19 there is an account of an excellent motivation period. The examples of monograms are the least good in all her extensive coverage of art activities and materials.

The bibliography is excellent. Everything on the list – British and American – is good, including the recently reorganized School Arts Magazine. It is interesting that she has included a book on Modern British Poetry that she calls a "must" for every school library.

In a recently revised book, *Social-Studies Skills*[3] the authors present a number of the more important skills often required in social studies programs and give sug-

gestions for easier and more effective learning of each through participation and use.

This supplementary textbook for social-studies students is upper elementary or junior-high grades, or the first year of high school, was first published in 1942, and through eight previous printings has made a place for itself as a means of improving pupils' skills in the various phases of social-studies classroom and library work. For this revised and enlarged edition, charts, graphs, text matter, and exercise materials have been brought up-to-date, and three new skills units have been added to the original twenty. The titles of the three added units are, "How to Make a Current-Events Report," "How to Take Notes," and "How to Draw Conclusions."

Intended originally as a text that would free overworked teachers and librarians of the detail work of preparing and teaching materials on social-studies classroom study, and library skills, *Social-Studies Skills* was soon recognized as a means, incidentally, of improving students' work in other courses as well—many of the units give training in skills that are applicable in other subjects.

The purpose of the book is to improve pupil work in the social studies; increase the number of useful skills taught in the school, and relieve teachers and librarians of the preparation and much of the teaching of social-studies skills materials. Each unit is organized to give directions, practice materials, a test, and a retest on the skill covered. The Individual Self-Testing Key allows students to check their own work (or one another's work) and to proceed at their own pace. The book has a reading difficulty of sixth-grade placement. Selected units can be taught as needed during a one- or two- semester course, or the work can be covered by an average class in a short course of six to seven weeks.

Milton E. Hahn, University of California, Los Angeles, California.

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1. *Developmental Guidance in Secondary School.* Little, Wilson, Chapmen, et al., New York: McGraw-Hill, 1953.
2. *Self-Expression through Art.* Elizabeth Harrison. Peoria: Charles A. Bennett Co., Inc.
3. *Social Studies Skills,* with Individual Self-Testing Key. Forrest E. Long and Helen Halter. New York: Inor Publishing Co. Revised and enlarged edition, 1954. $1.85; Key, 12 cents.

BOOKS RECEIVED

General

Hutchins, Robert M., *The University of Utopia,* $2.50, Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1953.

Warfel, Harry R., Edited by, *Letters of Noah Webster,* $7.50, New York, Library Publishers, 1953.

Kogan, Zuce, *Essentials in Problem Solving,* Chicago, Zuce Kogan, 1951.

Alberty, Harold, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum,* $5.25, New York, The MacMillan Company, 1953.

Elementary School

Elsbree, Willard S. and McNally, Harold J., *Elementary School Administration and Supervision,* $4.50, New York, American Book Company, 1951.

UNESCO, *Primary Teacher Training,* $1.00, New York, Columbia University Press.

UNESCO, *Primary Teachers' Salaries,* $2.00, New York, Columbia University Press.

Adams, Harold P. and Dickey, Frank G., *Basic Principles of Supervision,* $3.75, New York, American Book Company, 1953.

Physical Education and Recreation

Hunsicker, Paul A. and Montoye, Henry J., *Applied Tests and Measurements in Physical Education,* New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953.

Brightbill, Charles K. and Meyer, Harold D., *Recreation, Text and Readings,* New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953.

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED

Weaver, Elbert C., *Critical Years Ahead in Science Teaching,* Report of Conference on Nation-wide Problems of Science Teaching in the Secondary Schools, Phillips Academy, Andover, Massachusetts. No charge.

Neagley, Ross L., *Recruitment and Selection of School Administrators,* $1.00, A Progress Report of CPEA, Bureau Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Baldwin, Robert D., *Continuing Professional Development of School Administrators,* A Progress Report of CPEA, Bureau Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Davies, Daniel R., *A Developing Concept of the Superintendency of Education,* $1.00 CPEA Reports to the Profession, Bureau Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Fisk, Robert S., *Pre-Service Preparation of School Administrators,* A CPEA Report to the Profession, Bureau Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, *The Forty-Eighth Annual Report,* New York.

MAGAZINES RECEIVED

THE GRADE TEACHER. The Educational Publishing Corporation. Darien, Connecticut. $4.00 per year.

NEW JERSEY EDUCATIONAL REVIEW. New Jersey Education Association. Trenton, New Jersey. $2.00 per year.

C. T. A. JOURNAL. California Teachers Association. San Francisco, California. $2.00 per year.

THE PACKET. Heath's Service Bulletin for Elementary Teachers. 285 Columbus Avenue, Boston 16, Massachusetts.

PITTSBURGH SCHOOLS HANDBOOK. Board of Public Education. 155 Administration Building, Pittsburgh.

SCHOOL ACTIVITIES. School Activities Publishing Company. Lawrence, Kansas. $3.50 per year.

SOCIAL PROBLEMS. Society for the Study of Social Problems. Brooklyn College or Brandeis University, Waltham, Massachusetts. $4.00 per year.

PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOL JOURNAL. Pennsylvania State Education Association, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. $3.00 per year.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST. Ann Arbor, Michigan. $4.00 per year.

N. E. A. JOURNAL. Journal of the National Education Association, Washington 6, D. C. $5.00 per year.

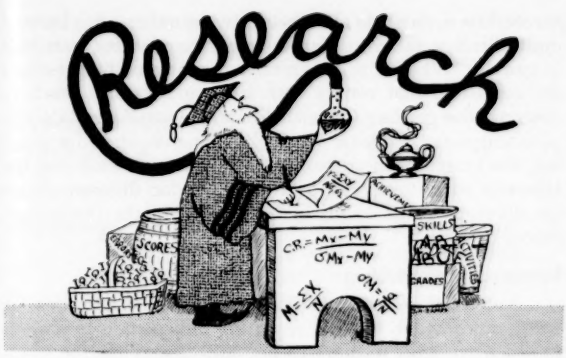
SCHOOL ACTIVITIES. School Activities Publishing Company, Lawrence, Kansas. $3.50 per year.

HISTORY TODAY. 72 Coleman Street, London, EC. 2, England.

C. T. A. JOURNAL. California Teachers Association, San Francisco, California. $2.00 per year.

PRIMARY READING PROFILES. Stroud, Hieronymus, McKee, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 1953.

At the request of Miss Dorothy R. Foster credit is extended to William L. Winston, Coordinator of the Audio-Visual Department of the Newton Public Schools for the picture which accompanied her article, *A-Camping We Will Go,* in the February JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.



PROBLEMS AND TRENDS IN GRADING

Four times a school year teachers, pupils, and parents engage in a ritual which most of them dislike – the ritual of the report cards. For days in advance, the children engage in a variety of preparations, somewhat like the preparation for Christmas by being extra-good, but with much less certainty of the outcome. They are more obedient, they engage in more apple-polishing, they feign greater seriousness of purpose, they become increasingly anxious as the fatal report day nears. Teachers teeter between failing and just passing, between pluses and minuses, between crediting a child's effort, his quality of work, or his degree of ability. They labor for hours writing grades on cards, in grade books, and on permanent records. At the appointed hour the momentary hush of anticipation is rapidly followed by exclamations of glee, or groans, tears and fear. The children take the reports home, or lose them, parents dutifully sign, praise or criticize, tell them to work still harder (as if all could get A's) and cooperatively punish by cancelling TV, or allowances, or privileges. As a group of junior high students described their loss of social privileges: our parents "ground us." Usually it is the less adequate students whose parents most reenforce the teacher's grades with their own bribes and punishments. Mental hygienists have long protested, but still the ritual continues, because most parents and most teachers believe that schools just wouldn't be doing a good job without report cards, and usually graded ones at that.

One wonders, aside from the wasted time and the disturbed feelings, just what a parent learns when he sees a "C" on a report card. Perhaps it is fortunate he doesn't stop to question but assumes he knows: my child is doing average work, average relative to what – his ability, the work of other children, some absolute standard such as fourth grade work (another unknown for few fourth grades do identical work), and in what – effort, neatness, accuracy, speed, or quality?

In view of the reality of the situation–that report cards will not be discarded immediately, (yet increasing amounts of change are occurring in efforts to make the most constructive use of report cards) a review of purposes and procedures in grading is worthwhile.

Purpose and use of grades

Grades are used for a variety of purposes: providing pupils and parents with information regarding pupil progress, as incentives to study, for awarding honors, promoting, grade placement, grouping within grade, determining graduation, for selection of vocation and certification to college, for screening admissions to professional training, for permitting participation in extra-curricular activities, and for disciplinary purposes. On the positive side it is recognized that grades can give progressive knowledge of results, guidance in selection of courses, training, and vocation, and increase motivation and effort; on the negative side they can become ends in themselves, increase tension and frustration, produce undesirable competition and conflict, and produce teaching to pass examinations. The use of number and letter grades is confused by the lack of unanimity between teachers on the bases used for grading–each teacher usually having her own private basis and her own private exceptions to her basis for grading, and these bases are confused by common errors which bias ratings such as favoritism, hearsay, halo effect, inadequate information, etc.

From all of these uses, strengths and weaknesses to be considered in establishing any grading system, some priorities should be given and distinctions made in the purposes for which grades are to be used. If the basic purpose of public schools in providing education for all is to produce maximum individual development, then the grading system used should first and last be consistent with this objective by stimulating continued effective effort to learn and by giving accurate knowledge of progress to both pupils and parents in order that analysis of strengths and weaknesses can be made. The contrast with professional schools should be made: in professional and vocational schools grades are used to retain those that are capable and eliminate those incapable of learning the vocation. Nor is the analogy sound that grade school should be a duplication of life where individuals in an occupation are rated one against the other..

In adult life one has some choice of occupation and can leave an area in which failure is encountered, whereas in school one must come back to the same task each day, tasks for which all children have differing degrees of ability, which in any comparative system condemns some to continued failure. In such situations, continued failure usually leads to reduced effort which in turn defeats the ultimate purpose of public education.

Procedures used in grading

Regardless of whether a numerical or letter grade is used, there are primarily three kinds of comparisons which can be employed as a basis for grading, (1) relative to other members of a group, (2) relative to one's ability, and (3) relative to some external criterion of performance. The first procedure is most commonly used, that of grading a pupil's performance in comparison with that of the other pupils, the second depends on the extent to which the pupil is working up to his capacity, in the third the absolute quality of pupil performance on doing certain tasks is rated. In either of the first two procedures any of a number of bases for grading can be and are used by teachers: quality of work, quantity of work, amount of improvement shown, class conduct and behavior, attitude towards work or teacher, etc. The task in establishing a grading system is to give meaning to the symbols used, the comparisons made, and the criterion employed.

Symbolic grades

For a long time, and in some places still, many schools gave marks on a scale from 0 to 100. The mark was supposed to tell the percentage of the work given that the pupil had learned, with 70% usually passing for purposes of promotion. This procedure has been replaced by letter grades, first because experiments showed that teachers were unable to make such fine distinctions, e.g., between 84 and

85, and secondly because the per cent had no external meaning, i.e., per cent of what? Thirdly, the three reference points, 0, 100, and passing, were not anchored.

Although letter grades such as A, B, C have the advantage of requiring only broad discriminations, they have no intrinsic meaning. An interesting assignment is to ask a group of teachers to independently rate any given piece of work—Geometry papers, English papers, etc. Even a supposed perfect paper will be ranked from A to D. The ranks will vary if the paper is handwritten rather than typewritten. One finds teachers who give no A's in order to avoid giving an equal number of F's or giving no A's because they think no one outside of heaven is perfect. Moreover, where grades are assigned on some version of the normal curve, undesirable competition and apathy frequently results, as well as cheating to attain grades, and social status and prestige based upon grades is occasionally observed. Unfortunately, parents and pupils can not be objective about their failures. Poor marks frequently carry a social stigma with them and leave an imprint of feelings of inferiority.

The efforts to substitute a simple pass or fail grade in place of letters or such words as excellent, fair, poor, improving, making progress, etc., do not circumvent the shortcomings.

Standards of comparison

Three standards of comparison have been listed—to a group, to the individual's ability, to objective accomplishment. Most widely used is group comparison where some form of rank ordering is used. While such procedures have the advantage of telling child and parent where the youngster stands relative to the group (which the child usually knows), they fail to indicate where the group stands. This point becomes especially clear in schools where ability-grouping is used. An "A" in a low-ability group obviously doesn't mean the same as an "A" in a high-ability group. This difficulty is sometimes corrected by using different symbols such as A_1 and A_2 which adds to the confusion, or by not giving "A's" in low groups or "F's" to high groups which has a negative effect on motivation.

Comparative ratings have been criticized for placing low ability students (who cannot modify their ability) in a situation of perpetual failure, which defeats a basic purpose of public education. Grading performance comparative to one's capacity—an A for working up to capacity, necessitates two judgments, one regarding capacity and one regarding relative performance. Further, it tends to lead to unrealistic estimates of capacity.

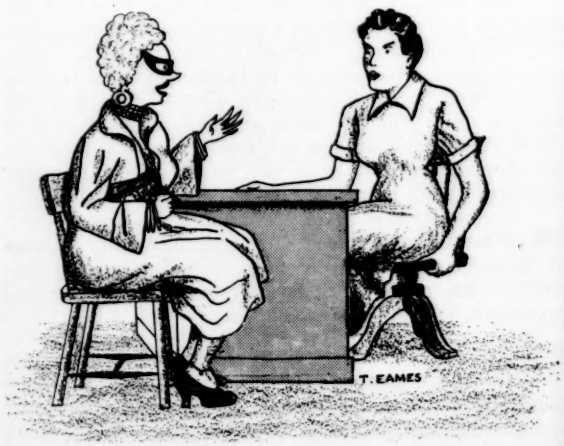
Both procedures are subject to common difficulties in rating: halo effect, stereotyping, hearsay, position effect, etc. A still greater difficulty rests in the problem of making a single grade in a subject describe an individual's total performance in the subject, his effort, skills, weaknesses, attitudes, perseverance, ability to follow directions, to work alone, etc.

Dissatisfaction with relative and individual ratings has prompted efforts to employ ratings based on standards of performance. This may be done by listing the skills a child is expected to obtain during a given period of time and indicating which tasks he can do and which he is unable to do. Such ratings may take the form of check lists or descriptive statements; they may vary from indicating whether or not the pupil can do a given task to provisions for rating relative to the group; they may include personal and social skills and attitudes as well as academic skills. Use of performance ratings requires that the school or the teacher establish specific statements of objectives of their curriculum such as: Is able to add two numbers, has learned multiplication tables, observes safety regulations, can lead in games. While it is apparent that such statements avoid the confusion that occurs with letter grades and tends to objectify the grading, nevertheless, they possess certain disadvantages not the least of which is time required for grading, the length of the report form, the task of observing the behavior to be reported, and the need for different forms for different grade levels or different subjects (secondary school).

Forms of reporting

Letters to parents and teacher-parent conferences are being more widely used in reporting information to parents in school systems wishing to find substitutes for the traditional report cards. The preparation of letters takes much time, requires a high level of skill for reporting individual differences in performance. Where classes are large, letters tend to become stereotyped. Frequently, letters are difficult to understand, particularly where the language ability of the parents is limited. A modification of this procedure is the use of report slips which provide for written comments in addition to a grade. These can be prepared on separate slips for each subject on a secondary level eliminating one clerical operation of transcribing grades.

Conferences with parents can be a satisfactory way of reporting on pupil's work. The teacher can have the child's work on hand to show to the parents; he can tell the parents what he has observed of the child's behavior; he can ask and answer questions permitting a greater exchange of mutually useful information. Any misunderstandings can be corrected immediately. Conferences have certain weaknesses. They are time-consuming. However, if appropriately prepared for, the time is well spent. It requires that the teacher have some skill in interviewing and have an intimate knowledge of the child which he is able to communicate. Prior preparation is needed. In schools where both parents of a number of children work, the scheduling may be difficult; parents may expect the assistance that a consulting psychologist can give and may



I tell ya Miss, the kid ain't normal—no sports—no fights —just reads books!

be dissatisfied with teacher effort in analysis and reporting. In any of the preceding situations some form of permanent record will be needed.

Trends in reporting:

Decreasing:
1. Unexplained single marks
2. Competitive marking
3. Use of per cent marking

Increasing:
1. Defining meaning of marks
2. Grouping of subjects in broad fields
3. Listing objectives and skills to be accomplished in individual subjects.
4. Including explanation of grades, reasons for lack of accomplishment, suggestions for improvement
5. Reporting special abilities, interests, activities
6. Including profiles of pupil performance, including objective test data
7. Reporting social and emotional development and behavior.
8. Reporting on physical and health development
9. Describing philosophy, purpose and organization of school
10. Individualized personalized letter-form reports
11. Parent-teacher conferences as a substitute or supplement to report card
12. Joint parent-teacher revision of report forms

Criteria for report cards

In summarizing, besides repeating the statement that any grading system should be consistent with and not defeat the purpose of public education of maximum development of all children, the criteria reported by Traxler (15) are listed:

1. A report which requires a minimum amount of clerical work
2. A report to which the community is educated.
3. A report which promotes understanding both within the home and the school
4. A report which will inform parents of progress in all phases, physical and social as well as mental
5. A report which states in simple terms the philosophy of the school; in other words, the ultimate goals of education
6. A report which includes adjustment to life as well as to school subjects
7. A report which sets up a standard of value of work for its own sake rather than for marks or other emoluments
8. A report which is suitable to the age level for which it is made
9. A report which is understandable to the child himself
10. A school record which includes both objective and subjective material
11. A type of record which, in case of transfer, facilitates early and proper adjustment of the child in his new situation
12. A record and report which shall take into consideration the child as an individual as well as the child as a member of a social group
13. A type of record and report which will indicate scholastic achievement, individual adjustment and social growth.

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Teaching Techniques Are Made Vivid In Colored Slides

A reading program is in action only when children read. A series of approximately 100 colored slides taken at the Mason-Rice School present a graphic study of current techniques and curriculum practices planned to interest children in reading, while teaching them the fundamentals. Although the slides are not intended to present a complete story, they do show vividly many of the teachers' and children's activities in teaching and learning how to read.

It was not the school's desire to picture anything except standard classroom procedures that teachers employ in teaching reading. Slides were taken in every classroom and show only work that was actually under way when this project was carried through. They undertake to show what can be done, using teacher-made material to supplement equipment purchased by a school system.

The areas these slides attempt to cover were planned by the faculty as a group. All 26 teachers submitted several descriptions of slides that could be taken.

Organizational details and final decisions of slides to be made were under the direction of a Steering Committee of four teachers chosen by the faculty.

These slides have been widely shown. The audiences seeing them have included parents, teachers, university classes, P.T.A. groups, Teachers' Workshops, State and County conventions, one regional publisher's conference, visitors to the school, and the Newton School Committee.

Reading is an essential tool and involves many specialized techniques. Today's children require careful preparation in the varied areas demanding reading skills. These slides demonstrate how a school can attempt a well-rounded, rich, meaningful program that gives full emphasis to the fundamentals of reading.

No Shortage of First-Grade Chefs

Long a problem in many homes, the "good breakfast" was given a sound boost in a first grade at Angier School when the children planned, prepared, and ATE a hearty meal of orange juice, eggs, bacon, toast, and milk early one Saturday morning this spring.

As the result of remarks by parents to the effect that breakfast had become an ordeal of major proportions, the first graders and their teacher decided to do something about the problem. As a class project, it fitted neatly into their current classroom study of the home. They decided to make the breakfast entirely their own project, letting parents know by written programs and reports exactly what was going on.

They first decided that every breakfast must be good to insure a successful day at work or at school. Next they carefully planned a menu which was typical of what a good breakfast should be. They read recipes, measured pints of orange juice and quarts of milk, added dozens of eggs, and weighed bacon. They ordered with housewifely care from a neighborhood grocer. Cooking utensils were brought from homes and a miniature but efficient kitchen was set up in a corner of the room. Tables were gaily set with colored napkins and doilies. Freshly-cut, simple flowers made bright, cheerful centerpieces.

White aprons crinkled and chefs caps bobbed intently as eggs were cooked to order. The bacon was crisp and brown. The few visitors on hand for the occasion were amazed and pleased with the efficiency of the children, and were satisfied by the results.

The importance of a good breakfast had been made clear. Many important points had been made in connection with the classroom study of the home. The whole project had been carried through by the children with the zest of doing something new and useful for themselves.

For Newcomers

New children in the schools often find difficulty in adjusting to their unfamiliar surroundings. Their parents are anxious to learn the procedures and regulations of the school, but do not know where to go for information. Here is how one school "broke the ice."

In September, 40 new parents were invited to meet with the principal. After introductions, the aims, objectives, and purposes of the school were explained. Then the new pupils joined their parents. To facilitate introductions everyone was given an identification tag. Pupil representatives from the Safety Patrol, Library, Physical Education, and School Council were called in to meet the entire group.

During this time the "old timers" remained in their respective rooms. In each room they discussed the best ways to treat new pupils in order to make their lives happy in their new school.

When the newcomers' meeting was over, the principal took the new parents and children on a tour of the building and introduced them to all the teachers. Both the parents and the children registered pleasure and gratitude for the opportunity afforded them to get acquainted with their new school.

Clothes Old?—No, Just Outgrown

Peirce Trade Shop, Newton, is one of several clothing exchange shops run as P.T.A. activities in different schools. It is staffed by volunteer helpers and is open every Monday that school is in session. Outgrown clothing which is in good condition is brought in, and appraised by the owner and trade shop worker. If the article is sold, the customer receives 80 per cent of the sale and the remaining 20 per cent is turned over to the Peirce P.T.A. fund.

This money enables the P.T.A. to provide for the school many little extras which make the school program more interesting and exciting. These extras include additional library books and magazines, film strips, victrolas, bus trips, school cafeteria, baseball caps, Cub Scouts, and Brownies. There is also a Halloween and a Christmas party each year. Aside from the pupils and teachers receiving these benefits, mothers who work in the Trade Shop become acquainted with the other mothers, and lasting friendships are made.

(Annual School Report, Newton Public Schools, Newton, Mass.)

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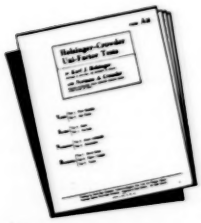

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